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ABSTRACT

This collection of articles focusing on reading interaction is divided into three major sections: The Teacher; Teacher and Pupil; and Teacher, Pupil, and Materials. The first section discusses such topics as the teacher's important role in reading improvement; disseminating research among classroom teachers; and aspects of teacher education. The second section discusses such topics as increasing parent-teacher interaction; a systematic approach to teaching decoding skills; and teaching reading and literature to the disadvantaged. Section three discusses such topics as teaching migrant children; bilingual bicultural education; a classroom reading program; children's reading and attitude change; and how publishers develop instructional materials. (TS)

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READING INTERACTION

the teacher
the pupil
the materials

Brother Leonard Courtney, *Editor*
The University of British Columbia

CS 002 441

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION
800 Barksdale Road Newark, Delaware 19711

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Foreword

Each Annual Convention of the International Reading Association has grown larger than the one before, both in number of program offerings and in attendance. Many of us, perhaps most of us, who watch the conventions rather closely recall quite easily the day hardly a decade ago when a single volume routinely included all the convention proceedings for a particular year.

To produce a single comprehensive volume from the 1974 Convention in New Orleans would have required the collection within two covers of literally hundreds of papers presented in a fascinating variety of formats.

It is that background of multiplicity that makes all the more remarkable the successful efforts of an editor like Brother Leonard Courtney, who has shaped some samples of those hundreds of presentations into this single, unified volume on *Reading Interaction: The Teacher, The Pupil, The Materials*. Our thanks to him for this volume and to those members of the Publications Committee who served as reviewers of the papers from the New Orleans Convention.

Millard Black, *President*
International Reading Association
1973-1974

Introduction

Conference themes often appear as "program-dressing," and are rarely reflected in the individual papers presented. Not so with this representative selection of papers from IRA's New Orleans Convention, based on the theme, "The Teacher: Key to Excellence in Reading."

The diverse papers in this slender volume find a unifying element in the *person* of the teacher—preparation; the human and professional qualities which enliven teaching; and the creation, development, and use of materials that facilitate that teaching. Fortunately, although unintentionally, the initial focus derives from Wilson Riles' sensitive overview of California's reading ventures. Two apparently conflicting tenets of recent years recur in several articles: on the one hand, the emergence of performance or competency based teaching; on the other, the affective interaction of teacher, pupil, and material—the plea for recognition of human qualities that has been sounded so often by O'Neil, Goodman, Holt, Reisman, and other professional critics. Yet, in these papers, the pragmatic always subordinates to the human, effect to affect. The authors—classroom teachers and university researchers alike—recognize that the sensitive, informed, purposeful teacher is the link between pupil and material.

The diversity of the papers offers something to every reader. In locale, the discussions reflect practical efforts from Canada to the South, from Florida and Appalachia to the West Coast. They range through teacher training, classroom practice, the teaching of migrant children, the use of paperbacks, and the development of materials by publishers. There are fresh views for the informed, new insights for the searching. Above all, there is the opportunity for rekindling one's awareness that reading, along with the teaching of reading, is constantly new.

BROTHER LEONARD COURTNEY

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The International Reading Association attempts, through its publications, to provide a forum for a wide spectrum of opinion on reading. This policy permits divergent viewpoints without assuming the endorsement of the Association.

The Teacher

FOCUS QUESTIONS

- Can a state as immense as California organize for effective reading instruction?
- What elements support a teacher's quest for excellence?
- What are the criteria for competency based reading preparation?
- Is competency based reading preparation producing better teachers?
- Do teachers need to be fearful of heeding research findings?
- How may curriculum be influenced to renew objectives?

In describing the strides toward reading effectiveness in California, Riles focuses on the teacher as "the key to excellence" in reading improvement. His sensitivity to all aspects of reading, his understanding of the problems, and his evident love of reading set the tone for this volume and voice far-reaching practical implications.

California's Search for Excellence: The Teacher as Key

Wilson Riles
State Superintendent of Public Instruction
Sacramento, California

The long journey from McDonough High School No. 35 in New Orleans to State Superintendent of Public Instruction in California was made possible in a large measure by the acquisition of one basic skill—reading.

I have discovered that the tragedy and beauty of all life is bound in the printed word. I have found that the person capable of giving meaning to those words has learned, as S. I. Hayakawa says, "to profit by and take part in the greatest of human achievement."

The most lasting and valued gift that we, as parents and educators, can bestow upon our children is the love of reading. We must make learning to read a joyous voyage of discovery. We must show the child that reading provides the bridge between him and the world of ideas. Most of all, we must believe in the power of words. We, ourselves, must have traveled that bridge. We must exhibit an attitude toward reading that evokes a positive response from the child we teach.

Our responsibilities are to parents, to the community, and, most important of all, to the leaders of tomorrow—the children of today.

How can we discharge these responsibilities to parents, taxpayers, and students? How can we ensure that every child reads with a level of proficiency that will enable him to function creatively and responsibly in America's Third Century—his century.

I am not an expert in the teaching of reading. However, some ideas we have developed in California to improve the quality of our reading programs may provide guidance to others.

Almost every nation in the world is concerned with the problem of functional illiteracy. We in the United States think of ourselves as a highly literate nation. Yet, we face a tragic and challenging truth when we examine the figures given to us in 1971 by the Lou Harris Poll—19 million Americans over the age of sixteen are functional illiterates. They cannot read well enough to fill out job application forms; cannot read contracts; cannot comprehend ballot measures; cannot apply for permits, licenses, insurance, or even public assistance. For many reasons, I am optimistic that we can reduce rather than add to those figures in the years ahead.

Educational Technology

First, we have moved beyond the experimental stage in using educational technology to teach and to improve basic skills. In our reading programs in California, we have a variety of technological systems in use:

- Systems 80—programed instruction is now widely accepted.
- Many districts are using controlled readers to develop smoothness in reading patterns.
- Film loops made available in library learning centers are combining pleasure reading with educational content.
- Computer assisted instruction is used in a few districts to teach reading.
- Cassette tape recorders are widely used for a variety of purposes: to encourage the child to read aloud without fear of teacher or peer criticism, to assist the teacher in diagnosing individual needs, and to assist both the teacher and the student in monitoring progress. Also, teacher prepared tapes help the younger child to learn to make certain sounds or to hear words pronounced properly.
- Instructional television is widely used in our classrooms—both national programs, such as *Sesame Street* and *Electric Company*, and locally produced programs made possible through state supported regional instructional television associations.

The educational technology field is expanding and changing rapidly. Go into any school and open the door to the instructional materials closet. Like tracing the weather by looking at tree rings, you can trace the changes in technology be digging down through the piles of equipment bought and discarded over the years.

It is easy to think of educational technology as the universal solution to all of our problems. Everybody knows that a machine that hums, clicks, and has a respectable number of blinking lights will perform miracles—monitor progress, teach any child to read, identify problem areas—whatever you need, it will do. Technological devices do have much to offer. The materials they present are prepared by experts in learning theory. The programs are based on logical steps in the learning process: needs determined, strategies applied, learning reinforced, and specific objectives reached. But technology, great as it is, is an adjunct to and not a replacement for the teacher. Without the teacher, none of those buzzing, humming, twinkling devices is sufficient.

The machine has yet to be invented which will respond to a child's frustration with warmth and understanding. No machine can replace the interaction between human beings. The teacher is the key to excellence. Reading is not a mechanical thing, not simply a matter of recognizing words; it is the meaning, the emotions, the communication of ideas—that is what reading is all about.

And that thought brings me to the second reason that I am optimistic about the progress we are making in California toward ending the tragic blight of functional illiteracy.

Reading Task Force

We have recognized that the teacher is the key to excellence in the reading program. Three years ago I appointed a task force, within the California State Department of Education, to find out what we could do to improve reading. I wanted facts; I needed to know what makes an effective reading program. The task force surveyed reading programs from one end of the state to the other—urban/rural, rich/poor, big/small—no matter how wide the variety of districts, the task force surveyed them all. They examined school districts where reading scores were high and where they were low and then analyzed their data. What did they find?

1. An effective reading program is based upon a comprehensive assessment of the needs of the individual child; the resources available to meet those needs; and the competencies of the teachers, their strengths and weaknesses.
2. An effective reading program is based upon a diagnostic-prescriptive approach.
3. An effective reading program fits the program to the individual child instead of forcing the child to fit the program.
4. Finally, the most important characteristic of an effective reading program is the commitment to excellence on the part of the teacher, the principal, and the supporting staff.

No single method, no magic machine, no gimmicks—the four characteristics listed above are the essentials of an effective reading program.

If the teacher is the key ingredient to a successful reading program, what can educational leadership do to ensure that we have teachers committed to excellence and that we are providing them with the best possible training and giving them the resources they need to support their classroom activities? Indeed, if the teacher is the key, then our number one priority should be to provide that teacher with all the support required to accomplish the task. Today, such a priority is not recognized in this nation nor in any other nation that I know of. When the Defense Department is having bake sales to buy uniforms for the Marine Band and schools have unlimited appropriations, then we will know that we are truly concerned about the one-fifth of the nation that is functionally illiterate.

Training

In California, we are attempting to provide the kind of support necessary to have an effective reading program in every school. We are encouraging preservice and inservice staff development programs to provide teachers and support staff with a full range of approaches to the teaching of reading. Our reading task force identified elementary schools with truly exceptional reading programs. These programs were used as models in workshops attended by teachers and administrators of schools experiencing severe reading problems. The training sessions stressed the necessity of adapting parts of programs which matched particular needs of a school rather than copying or adopting a program in its entirety. A successful teacher must have a variety of approaches available so that the method can fit the child rather than force the child to fit the method. The effective teacher knows many methods and has the sensitivity to know which one is most appropriate for the individual child.

We have supported the use of the reading specialist teacher to assist in both inservice training and in teaching. Our evaluation of programs where reading specialists have been used indicates that specialists do indeed contribute to overall improvement of reading skills, particularly with low achieving students.

Reading Framework

We are providing the teachers of California with a framework in reading which offers the basic structure for the teaching of reading. The first of its kind in California, this framework is designed to guide all of the teachers who have responsibility for reading instruction. The framework does not mandate plans, methods, or objectives from the state level. Instead, it stresses the responsibility of each district for preparation of the philosophy, goals, and objectives of its own reading program based upon an assessment of local need. The framework is not empty rhetoric. We are prepared to provide assistance to districts in developing reading program plans and objectives and to help them with effective implementation.

We feel strongly that reading programs should be developed at the local level in response to local needs. We cannot stress too emphatically the importance of individualizing instruction to fit the needs of each child. We have stressed these two beliefs in all approaches toward improving the effectiveness of educational programs.

We are attacking the reading problem on several fronts:

1. The Early Childhood Education program emphasizes basic reading skills. The intent of this program is to ensure that every child who leaves third grade can read at least at grade level.
2. Bilingual education programs stress reading in both the child's dominant home language and in English for children whose dominant language is not English.
3. Unique reading demonstration projects operate in a number of junior high schools. In the most successful of the experimental demonstration projects, low achieving junior high students in low socioeconomic areas have been making steady, sometimes dramatic, gains in their reading achievement.
4. We have recently established a reading council to coordinate all of these reading efforts. The council will develop and maintain our master plan for reading. In addition, the council will assure that all those responsible for reading know about exemplary programs and are aware of research in the field, both state- and nationwide.

Evaluation

No matter how much support and inservice training we give our teachers or how much effort we put into programs to meet the particular needs of each child, little is gained if reading is not improved.

Our evaluations show that reading scores are gradually rising in the primary grades. Now, for the first time, California school children are reading above the national norm. We are finally reversing the downward trend at the sixth grade level.

We are not standing still in the matter of accountability and evaluation. We are now implementing a new reading assessment program for all second and third grade children. The purposes of this new testing program are twofold: 1) to test what we teach to find how well children are learning basic skills, and 2) to analyze the data from the tests to facilitate decision making at the state level.

We have never had adequate information concerning the effectiveness of extra resources, use of reading specialists, or special program efforts. We will obtain such information from the new tests.

With this kind of precise information to guide our decision making, we will be able to give our teachers the amount and kind of resources they should have if they are to continue to be the key to excellence.

Further optimism derives from the recommendation by the California State Board of Education that all school districts adopt minimum standards of proficiencies in the basic skills for graduation from high school. We are confident that establishing proficiency standards will put an end to the graduation of functional illiterates. Our schools have practiced "social" promotions too long.

Among others, the following minimum standards are recommended:

1. Given a local newspaper, the pupil will read and repeat the essence of the lead article on page 1.
2. Given a set of instructions, the pupil will read and follow them accurately.
3. Given an application for employment, the pupil will complete it accurately.
4. Given a ballot offering pro and con arguments, the pupil will identify the essential points of each.

When every high school graduate can meet such proficiency based minimum standards for graduation, we will be well on our way toward reducing the number of functional illiterates in this country.

Conclusion

We are making progress in California because of the thousands of teachers and principals who are committed to excellence. Without the dedication of teachers and specialists who are concerned enough about reading to spend hours of their free time improving their skills, we would not make any progress at all. From my own years of experience as a student, as a teacher, as an administrator, and as a state superintendent of public instruction, I know that the teacher is the key to excellence.

If our teachers can let children know the power which has been bound together by the great minds of this world, they will have put the cumulative experience of mankind within the reach of each child. We cannot hope for any greater goal; we should not settle for any less.

Preparation for training reading teachers continues to be problematical. The authors review the major features of competency based teacher education (CBTE) with special attention to the realities of secondary classroom life.

*Competency Based Secondary Reading Preparation: Philosophy and Rationale**

Richard W. Burnett and Thomas R. Schnell
University of Missouri at St. Louis

In teacher education, we are clearly in the era of behaviorally-stated learning objectives, competency based programs, and the modular construction of courses. It may not be clear what all this jargon means in terms of preparing better teachers of reading. This presentation briefly analyzes a few of the past and current features of the competency based instructional movement and states some implications for the continuing effort to educate better teachers of reading, especially at the secondary level.

An Old Competency Model with Implications for the New

True competency based teacher education (CBTE) is not so new a concept as some believe it to be. The now traditional practice of building practicum courses into programs, usually at the graduate level, which require laboratory or clinical work in reading diagnosis and in remedial teaching of disabled readers is a legitimate competency based strategy. Ordinarily in these programs there have been one or more courses preceding the practicum work. Reading educators who supervise the practicum courses have always been sensitive to the extent to which prior preparation in lecture-discussion or theory courses affects teacher performance in actual work with children. Even in this rather closed system of training remedial reading teachers, however, the university level in-

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*Portions of this article appear in the *Journal of Reading, 18,* 7 (April 1975), 544-549.

structor is kept aware of the less than perfect correspondence between the way teachers indicate they would approach a problem posed to them in a theory course and the actual way they function in a practicum situation. Maximizing this correspondence through the early use of demonstrations, case studies, and simulated teaching activities has become a trademark of reading methods classes. It is in step with the times to suggest that a reasonable definition of competency based teacher education is that it is the effort to maximize the correspondence between what teachers are taught to do and what they actually do in an on-the-job setting. Implicit in such a definition, of course, is the validity established (in terms of effective pupil learning) for what the teachers are being taught to do.

Two essential features of a genuine competency based strategy have been built into the better clinical reading programs throughout the country. First of all, the validity of the whole structure rests on whether children taught in the remedial practicum emerge as significantly better readers at the end of the sequence of courses. For that reason, changes in pupil achievement have been assessed as one part of the practicum experience. Second, a feedback principle has operated, whereby a practicum supervisor could modify the presentation in beginning theory courses in accordance with what graduate students were observed to be doing in the practicum courses at the end of the sequence. Strategies which do not attempt to build in a validity factor and a feedback cycle should be viewed with skepticism when claims are made that they are competency based approaches to teacher education. Few of the new CBTE models seem capable of meeting such a test.

Current Direction in CBTE

A basic contrast between the older clinical reading models and the newer CBTE approaches is in the attempt to define, develop, and measure competencies in individuals on a much broader scale and often without benefit of specific clinical experiences. In addition, the current emphasis in CBTE is in the undergraduate or preservice education of teachers. There are few teachers today who have progressed through the sequence of a methods course in developmental reading, a methods course in remedial or corrective teaching, a practicum in diagnostic testing, and a practicum in remedial teaching. Probably, the majority of teachers will stop with one rather general course in reading instruction. For that reason, the introductory theory courses have to be presented so that the likelihood is maximized that teachers will later perform on the job in accordance with the concepts presented in the one class.

Naturally, there are a number of problems inherent in building genuine competency activities into undergraduate courses. Often there are likely to be larger enrollments in undergraduate classes than in graduate classes. Students are without the "need-to-know" attitude held by graduate or inservice teachers who can relate each new learning directly to their job experience. Undergraduate programs tend to be crowded with both general and professional education requirements that place limits on the number of course hours that can be devoted to work in a specific aspect of the curriculum such as reading instruction.

Since competency or job relevance is demanded early and in large classes where supervised practicum work ordinarily is not feasible, an emerging emphasis is on paper and pencil learning exercises (competency activities) which are sometimes keyed into audiovisual presentations. These simulation experiences calling for responses approximating as closely as possible those responses called for in an actual classroom setting are tending to take up course time previously given to lecture-discussion and assigned text and library reading. Such activities can change a class from an abstract, academic exercise to one involving learning experience where direct application is made of newly presented concepts. Probably the greatest single danger in this trend would be the assumption that realistic appearing paper and pencil exercises with impressive sounding learning objectives behind them are superior in all cases to other approaches to instruction. The CBTE movement can collapse quickly if the means or instruments of education become confused with the ends or puposes of the education effort.

The message here for reading educators is twofold. First, effective teaching devices developed through the years must not be too readily discarded simply because their mode of presentation is not consistent with the latest fad or fashion. Conversely, many of the older lecture-discussion presentations may be readily adaptable to the newer programed paper and pencil task modules; and, in fact, such adaptations may provide for much more efficient utilization of time and more effective learning.

Finally, something needs to be said about the controversial issue of who should make the decision regarding change in instructional approach. Until the present time, the decision has been left with the university instructor. Historically, accountability in long range competency terms has had to rest on the credibility and integrity of the professors who were educating the teachers. Professors have been judged by the performance of their students, by their research and published commentary, and by their involvement in solving educational problems.

When instructional modes are mandated from external sources—whether these be state legislatures, deans of education, departmental chairmen, or faculty curriculum committees—it should be clearly understood that a system judgment is being superimposed on the judgment of the individual instructor. Consequently, responsibility for relevance or for establishing the ultimate validity of the competencies developed in teacher education programs shifts from the individual instructor to those who are mandating change. Persons who are disenchanted with university professors and their alleged resistance to change and fascination with teaching irrelevancies, should keep in mind that it may be more feasible for individual professors to remain current and relevant in what they teach in a fast-changing world than for group planned systems, which have taken months or even years to construct, to be kept current and relevant.

To take the present independence of university instructors in curricular matters away from them and substitute bureaucratic or committee based decision-making just might be a big step backward from competency based teacher education. Rationally implemented, CBTE promises a new vigor for teacher education and a definite move toward the improvement of instruction in our schools. As simply another oversold or overbought curricular fad, CBTE can be counterproductive.

CBTE: Secondary and Elementary Reading Compared

It is not surprising that competency based programs for preparing teachers to teach reading in elementary grades have developed earlier and exist in greater variety than comparable programs for preparing secondary teachers. The instructor who prepares preservice or inservice elementary teachers in reading instructional methods assumes that his students accept their basic responsibility to be that of teaching children to read. The instructor of preservice or inservice secondary teachers faces a more complex situation. The majority of his students are not likely to perceive themselves as reading teachers. At most, they expect their responsibility for teaching reading to be only peripheral to their basic responsibility of teaching content. In preparing teachers, it is easier to address the issue of how to teach reading directly than it is to prepare teachers to teach reading indirectly as it relates to content area instruction. Among other problems, the secondary teacher has to be equipped to meet each day several classes composed of different groups of students. The secondary teacher will probably have less time than does the elementary teacher for individual analysis of pupil needs, fewer resources to draw on for differentiating instruction, and less contact with pupils.

A second group found in a reading methods course are special reading teachers, and they do have a commitment to teaching reading as their primary responsibility. In contrast to elementary teachers, however, the secondary reading teachers are taught that their professional obligations include more than the direct teaching of pupils. In order to have a significant impact in a secondary school setting, special reading teachers must influence other teachers and must accept that they have inservice training functions that are part of their efforts to improve pupils' reading proficiencies and habits. In effect, these special teachers have to be masters of their craft so they can teach others to teach reading.

A further complication in secondary level reading courses is that the student teachers may lack or be weak in the very skills they are expected to teach. This possibility exists in elementary methods courses also, but it looms as a greater problem in secondary courses, since many high school teachers are not appreciably better readers than the higher achievers among their pupils.

In summary, then, the secondary teacher not only must possess word recognition, vocabulary, and literal comprehension skills but also interpretive reading, critical reading, and study-type reading skills of a very high order. The secondary teacher is required, further, to be able to develop these skills in others. In a secondary methods course, the teacher educator has an extremely complex set of competencies to consider: 1) the prospective teacher must possess and demonstrate the skills he is meant to teach, 2) he must demonstrate that he is knowledgeable about how to teach these skills, and 3) he must demonstrate that he has some insight into how to lead other teachers into the effective teaching of basic reading skills.

Realistic Constraints: Secondary Reading

A reading methods course is only one component in the total teacher education program in a given university setting. Consequently, those competencies stressed, the time scheduling factors, and the planned learning activities in a single course must be compatible with the scope of the program. Ultimately, once a course is clearly conceptualized, it may be divided into components or modules and integrated into a total program with other courses. When this happens, it becomes theoretically possible for students to "test out" of certain learning modules and to proceed in patterns and at a pace different from other students. Teacher educators are being told that the technology exists now for the implementation of such programs. Indeed, the hardware potential probably does exist but the software aspects (i.e., the defined and validated competency activities) still need considerable development. Also, the proper balance of lecture-discussion, group interaction, simulation activities, assigned reading, and field experience remains a matter of sheer speculation and is open to considerable differences of opinions.

The hard realities of a university's traditions and operating procedures must be faced in planning any move toward implementing competency based practices in a secondary reading methods class. For example, in an urban university it is not unusual for parallel programs to be offered both in the day and in the evening divisions. In such a setting, students are often commuters and have job responsibilities that make the scheduling of laboratory components to a course difficult to arrange. More often than not, university instructors who seek to prepare a course's content and present it in competency units are confined to specified hour limits. Courses may be offered in three hour segments with daytime classes meeting for fifty minute periods three days per week, while evening classes may tend to meet two evenings per week for an hour and a quarter or one evening for two and one-half hours for the same course credit. Several different instructors may be teaching the same course, if not at one time, at least over the span of two or three semesters. Some instructors may be public school reading specialists who are only teaching part-time for the university. Why is it necessary to mention these factors? To be realistic, at the present time, a competency based strategy must be sufficiently uncomplicated to be reasonably adapted and implemented in such a setting as that just described.

Summary

In the January 1974 *Phi Delta Kappan,* an entire issue devoted to CBTE, Rosner and Kay (*1*) make the following observation:

> Competency based teacher education is not an end in itself. It is a process of moving from the present ambiguous state of teacher education to a more clearly articulated program of professional education. CBTE is a transitional model for establishing teacher education on a firm theoretical and empirical base ultimately directed to the improved delivery of educational services.

In preparing to develop, describe, or defend any CBTE effort, it may help the educator's perspective if the terms "process of moving" and "transitional model," as used by Rosner and Kay, are kept in mind. In that dynamic rather than static context, any current effort should be characterized by several features. First, the knowledge and competencies programed into a course should be based on the best validity criteria available at the time, with such validity being grounded wherever possible on the measured performance of pupils in schools. Second, deliberate steps must be taken to verify that graduates of the course ably perform the functions on the job that the course was intended to prepare them to perform. Third, provision should be built in for modifying the course in response to feedback received as a result of follow up on the earlier products. Fourth, plans should be flexible enough to allow the course to be adjusted to meet the varying interests and needs of different groups without sacrificing the basic competency features. Here the reference is to differences in background, ability, and interests of the students. Finally, the course plan should be adaptable enough that it can be implemented in time segments that may vary from one section of the course to another and can be taught by instructors who might not have been involved in its original development.

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Improved teacher competency—toward proven excellence—in reading instruction continues to elicit concerned attention. Baxley describes a program, performance and field based, which seems to afford promise and direction toward proven competence.

Teacher Education: Performance and Field Oriented

Dan M. Baxley
University of Nevada at Las Vegas

A common criticism of teacher education programs is that they do not adequately prepare their graduates to teach reading. New teachers often experience difficulties in teaching reading, in diagnosing requirements of children who need extra help, and in locating desperately needed assistance. Because of that lack of ability, teachers sometimes go directly to the teacher's manual of a basal reader, skip the important section which explains the purpose of the manual, and begin "teaching reading" by adhering religiously to all the instructions and activities contained in the manual. Other teachers often spend years evaluating their own programs, working in various teaching and/or administrative positions, and pursuing graduate degrees, before they feel competent to teach reading.

Obviously, both situations are inappropriate. The first situation has disastrous consequences for children who are unlucky enough to fall behind; and the second situation is terribly unfair, since the teacher has already expended much time, money, and effort securing an undergraduate degree which ostensibly prepared her to teach reading.

Do prospective teachers have a choice? Must they either expend an inordinate amount of time, effort, and money learning to teach reading or be doomed to a lifetime of mediocre teaching? The answer, of course, is "no." An alternative is the performance based, field oriented, teacher education program.

TEPFO—History

Prior to 1967, the University of Washington's approach to teacher education was similar to that of most teacher preparation institutions in that prospective teachers were exposed to a series of methods courses followed by a short period of student teaching. Successful completion of the courses and student teaching assignments usually qualified the student for teacher certification and a position in the public schools. Due to recent decreases in demand for new candidates for teaching positions and increases in demand for more competent teachers, the College of Education of the University of Washington has reexamined its position relative to teacher education. That introspection led to a series of events which have had a major effect on this large, urban university's teacher preparation program.

In 1967, a modest attempt was made to initiate a coalition between a local school district and the university to develop the first teacher education pattern to be both performance based and field oriented. Since then, modifications of the original model have enabled the University of Washington to develop a viable teacher preparation program (*3, 4*). The acronym TEPFO, which will be used throughout this paper, refers to Teacher Education: Performance and Field Oriented.

During the past seven years, while modifications were being made in the TEPFO program, concomitant changes were occurring in the enrollment patterns of the two basic teacher preparation programs. At its inception, the TEPFO program enrolled only one in fifty of the undergraduate teacher education students. By the 1973-1974 adademic year, voluntary changes in enrollment patterns of undergraduate students had reduced the ratio between TEPFO and regular program students to one in four; during the 1973-1974 academic year, the ratio was further reduced to one in three.

The current University of Washington teacher education program has several tracks from which the student may choose. The traditional program exposes the student to methods courses followed by the usual student teaching assignment. Another option (TEPFO), which students have overwhelmingly chosen and which achieved national recognition from the AACTE group in 1972 for Distinguished Achievement, is described in the next section.

TEPFO—Current Status

TEPFO is distinguished from many other teacher education programs by its emphasis on four factors: 1) a clinic-field relationship, 2) performance based behavior, 3) strong peer relationships among all program participants, and 4) length of the continuous program. Deletion of any of these factors would markedly weaken the effect of the overall program, since each area is interrelated with, and dependent on, the others.

The clinic-field relationship is characterized by a split-day arrangement during the first two-thirds (two quarters) of the program, where student interns spend one-half of each day in the University Clinic and one-half of each day in a field assignment. Topics studied in the University Clinic are extended through related activities in the field to the performance level, with subsequent maintenance of those competencies on a continuous basis throughout the total program. Selection of topics is made by clinic professors (college faculty) with related activities effected through cooperation of field associates (teachers), field coordinators (liaison administrative people), and clinic professors.

Communication and resultant cooperation among all concerned are developed through a continuous seminar where field associates, field coordinators, and clinic professors refine their respective roles and explore means for solving emerging problems. Difficulties occurring in the program (which are identified through seminar and clinic-field experiences) are discussed and resolved through the steering committee. This committee meets regularly and consists of a balanced selection of all program participants (see Diagrams 1 and 2).

A second important aspect of TEPFO is the development of competencies related to the generalized role of the effective teacher (generic skills) and to the specific instructional situations of a particular area (programmatic). Verification of intern competency is made from observed performance in the field according to criterion based evaluations which are continuous throughout the total program. Agreement of field coordinators, field associates, clinic professors, and (in the case of microteaching situations) other interns, is used to determine competency acquisition.

A third important feature of TEPFO is the development of positive relationships among all participants. Since field personnel, students, and college faculty are constantly exploring new relationships and encountering new responsibilities, feelings of insecurity, doubt, and frustration are bound to occur. However, the combined effects of the clinic-field interaction (which is enhanced through continuous visits to the field by the clinic professors), the continuing seminar, and the steering committee play a significant role in maintaining a positive healthy atmosphere among all participants.

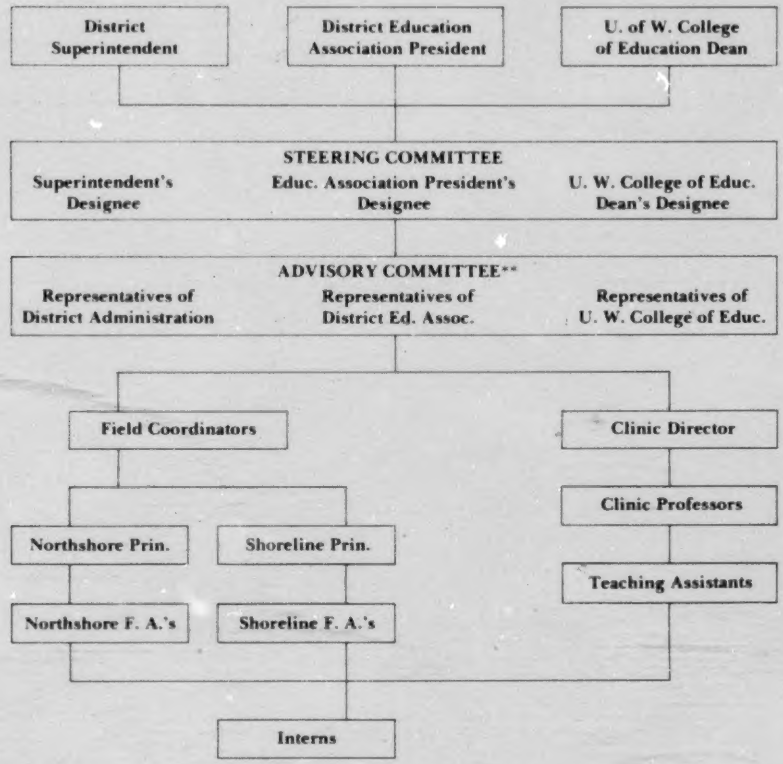
In addition, formal evaluation of all program participants is made by appropriate personnel. For instance, each field coordinator is formally evaluated periodically by clinic professors, field associates, and interns. On the other hand, clinic professors are continually evaluated by field coordinators, field associates, and interns. All evaluations are then summarized and relayed by the program director to the person evaluated. The basis for the evaluation is a job description which has undergone constant reexamination and modification since the inception of the TEPFO program (5).

A fourth major characteristic of the TEPFO program is the length of time available to participants in the two-way experience of competency development, performance evaluation, and subsequent skill maintenance.

During the first two quarters (approximately ten weeks each), interns divide their time equally between the field and clinic. The first quarter of the clinic focuses on reading and language arts, and the second quarter emphasizes science, mathematics, and social studies. All interns are in the

DIAGRAM 1

Northline Teacher Education Consortium Management System*


District Superintendent
District Education Association President
U. of W. College of Education Dean
STEERING COMMITTEE
Superintendent's Designee
Educ. Association President's Designee
U. W. College of Educ. Dean's Designee
ADVISORY COMMITTEE**
Representatives of District Administration
Representatives of District Ed. Assoc.
Representatives of U. W. College of Educ.
Field Coordinators
Clinic Director
Clinic Professors
Northshore Prin.
Shoreline Prin.
Teaching Assistants
Northshore F. A.'s
Shoreline F. A.'s
Interns

*(Kittell, 1974)

**Advisory Committee includes:

1. District Administration Principal
2. District Association
    Field Coordinator
    Field Associate
    Teps Representative
3. U. of W. College of Education
    Clinic Director
    Clinic Professor
    Intern
    Field Coordinator

field full-time during the third quarter and are temporarily certified by the state of Washington during that period. During the last quarter, the intern assumes the role of classroom teacher while under continuous supervision by the field associate and field coordinator.

Prerequisite to entrance into the first quarter of the program is coursework on campus which entails acquisition of knowledge in the areas of learning theory, child development, measurement evaluation, and interrelatedness of the psychomotor, cognitive, and affective domains.

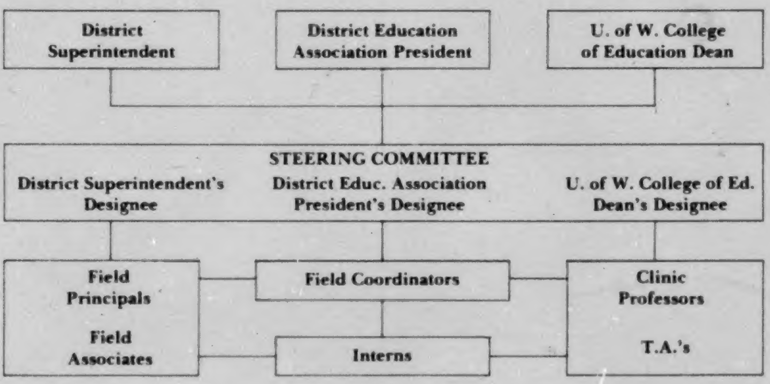
TEPFO—Reading Education

As indicated, work toward competency in reading education is initiated during the first quarter of clinic activities. Activities during the reading education portion of the clinic experience occur in the following sequence: 1) acquisition of knowledge, 2) case typing of an individual student's needs, 3) application of knowledge in an instructional situation with the case subject, 4) application of knowledge in an instructional situation with a small group, and 5) application of pedagogical skills in the total classroom situation.

A basic concern of the TEPFO reading education component is that interns, at the end of their program, be able to function in a variety of

DIAGRAM 2

Northline Teacher Education Consortium Communication System*


District Superintendent
District Education Association President
U. of W. College of Education Dean
STEERING COMMITTEE
District Superintendent's Designee
District Educ. Association President's Designee
U. of W. College of Ed. Dean's Designee
Field Principals
Field Associates
Field Coordinators
Interns
Clinic Professors
T.A.'s

*(Kittell, 1974)

situations. Therefore, interns are required to use a variety of instructional approaches in different classroom situations with both corrective and developmental readers. Each intern is required to prepare and implement learning activities in both highly structured and emerging environments. For instance, they must present basal reader lessons on a group basis utilizing the Directed Reading Activity and also implement Key Vocabulary/Language Experience activities on an individual basis.

Objectives of a reading education component of any teacher preparation program would, hopefully, be similar for most institutions. Analysis of the reading process, current programs, needs of the community, and needs of the child will ultimately yield objectives which must be accomplished in order to develop teacher competency in reading. The International Reading Association has identified areas of competency required for effective reading instruction and the TEPFO Reading Education component, for the most part, follows those recommendations (6).

The objectives are accomplished through a unit (module) approach where each student studies and works toward completion of specified tasks appropriate to the unit. Units typically used are 1) Nature of the Reading Process, 2) Etiology of Reading Difficulties, 3) Word Attack Skills, 4) Comprehension and Vocabulary Skills, 5) Factors Contributing to Readiness, 6) Evaluation of Readiness and Reading (both informal and formal), 7) Factors Affecting Instruction, 8) Analysis and Use of Current Programs, 9) Children's Literature, and 10) Record Keeping and Conferencing.

The problem of whether to let students "test out" in each unit has been resolved by requiring either observation of or work with school children as one of the enabling activities of each unit. That is, through a preassessment test, interns may always demonstrate acquisition of knowledge required for the completion of a unit, but must always complete some type of field-oriented task to finish the unit. For instance, in the unit on Nature of the Reading Process, interns are required to observe reading behavior of children and in the unit on Word Attack Skills, interns must actually teach children. In addition, all units of activity are presented according to a fixed schedule. Therefore, the situation does not occur in which an intern completes all requirements for the reading education component ahead of schedule, with a subsequent lack of needed field experience.

Again, the unique quality of this program is the extent of commitment made to performance and field orientation. As the intern moves through the first academic quarter (Reading-Language Arts), he is in constant contact with both the clinic and the field. As knowledge and teaching strategy are developed in the clinic, subsequent application is made in the field. Thus, the intern is made aware of the value of the knowledge and instructional techniques developed in the clinic through the performance of the children he instructs. And if the concern is for strong reinforcement of effective teacher behavior, success with a child must be the most powerful.

Of course, the ultimate determiner of the value of a program such as TEPFO is the adjudged ability of the newly certified teacher to effectively diagnose, prescribe, and implement activities which provide for student success in a reading program. Even though formal assessment of each intern's capabilities is made by field associates, field coordinators, and clinic professors during the first two-thirds of the TEPFO experience, the success of the intern in his own classroom is the ultimate indicator of the value of the program. That success has been noted in the areas of hiring practices of districts and performance with children as determined by various raters such as field associates, field coordinators, clinic professors, and administrators.

It has become increasingly apparent that districts prefer TEPFO graduates over regular program graduates; feedback from graduating students and placement agencies indicates that TEPFO graduates are being hired in preference to regular program graduates. One possible justification for this hiring trend may be the performance of the TEPFO interns in their own classrooms. This performance has probably been noted by administrators during the intern's field experience, since TEPFO interns are being chosen over traditional track students even though both have been trained in the same field center.

Through apparent word-of-mouth communication, other administrators (both in and out of the state) have decided to follow suit. Reports continue to filter in confirming that the demand exceeds the supply of TEPFO graduates. Some districts have actually granted advanced salary status for TEPFO graduates, and others have asked the placement office if there are any more of these people available.

The second indication of the success of the TEPFO program is intern performance on teacher-effectiveness scales developed by the University of Washington. In the areas of Professional and Personal Attributes, Instruction Preparation, Instructional Implementation, and Instructional Evaluation, TEPFO interns consistently have been rated significantly higher on five of eleven categories and higher on all but one category. The instrument used has shown high interrator reliability and is consequently consistent in its findings (5). Follow-up evaluation, after one year as a certified teacher, is now being made by administrators using the same instrument, and tentative results indicate continued superiority of the TEPFO graduate.

TEPFO—Future

The apparent success of the TEPFO program has encouraged the College of Education at the University of Washington to commit itself totally to the

TEPFO model for teacher preparation starting with the 1974-1975 academic year. Therefore, all students will be enrolled in a program which is field oriented, performance based, and which apparently produces more effective teachers of reading.

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Recognizing the inability of research to influence most classroom practices, the authors explore an alternative approach toward renewing curriculum. They explain the development of the Florida catalog of performance objectives in reading, limitations of their use, and practical steps for teacher involvement.

Disseminating Research Among Classroom Teachers

William M. West and Elaine K. Tivnan
University of South Florida

Some experts estimate that when a significant breakthrough occurs in a technological area, within three to four years practical applications of the new insight will have emerged from all concerned industries. The so-called "turret top" automobile was the exclusive possession of one company for only one year. The freeze-drying method of preparing instant coffee became industrywide in a matter of months. In the 1880s, the discovery that barbed wire could contain the most ferocious bulls enabled cattlemen to close the open range within a decade.

Not so when a breakthrough occurs in the social sciences—particularly in education. Educators almost replicate the story told by Charles Carpenter Fries of the "murder" of George Washington by his physicians. Although William Harvey had discovered and described the circulation of the blood in 1628, fully one and one-half centuries later, hoping to cure a case of quinsy, Washington's doctors bled him three times in one evening and so weakened him that they practically assured his death. The analogy between medicine in Washington's time and education in our time is not so farfetched if the titles of several books on teaching are taken seriously: *Save the Children, Our Children are Dying*, and *Death at an Early Age*. This criticism of the failure to apply research in education extends to areas other than reading, of course, but it surely applies to reading as well.

A research study described by Moore and Carriker (2) suggests that "The problem, at least in part, is simply that practitioners may not be willing to accept and use research findings—no matter how they are packaged—because they resist research *as a concept!*"

These researchers arrived at their conclusion by identifying comparable groups of American Educational Research Association (AERA) members, representative Kansas NEA members, and outstanding educators selected by local Jaycees. When the groups were given a Scale of Attitude Toward Research, developed and validated by the researchers, the outstanding teachers and the AERA members were indistinguishable in their attitudes. But the Kansas NEA members (assumed to offer a population representative of all Kansas public school teachers) scored significantly lower.

It is indeed possible that teachers will reject "research findings—no matter how they are packaged—because they resist *research as a concept!*"

Singer (*3*), has several additional explanations:

> If we ask why the studies . . . have not yet had widespread impact upon teaching reading, we would give several major reasons. On this list would be inattention or even ideological resistance to research results (Moynihan, 1968), findings contrary to "conventional wisdom" (Chall, 1967), acceptability of only those research findings that are in accord with the prevailing maturational-environmental bias (Durkin, 1958), susceptibilities of educational decision makers to commercial propaganda, and variation in adequacy of dissemination of findings (Chall, 1967).

Singer then goes on to offer an additional key reason why teachers neglect research findings: "Teachers do not have an alternate method." Research conclusions can be either positive or negative. They can be positive in suggesting something which should be done (for example, schools should attempt systematically to develop and assess both speed and comprehension) or negative in suggesting that something should not be done (for example, teachers should not use round-robin, lock-eyed reading recitation). Whether conclusions are positive or negative, most research is not disseminated in a pattern which also lays out clear and definite alternative procedures for actually teaching children. It is no wonder, then, that much research is not read; that some is read and rejected; or that some is read, attempted, and then abandoned. The ordinary practitioner may well resist research as a concept primarily because he reads it as basically negative: it attacks what he has been taught and what he has practiced; it tears down without offering alternatives to rebuild; and it asks him to create new procedures when the primary researcher has been unwilling or unable to do so.

The Florida Plan

Several years ago, in a pamphlet entitled *There's a New School Coming*, the Florida Department of Education laid out the renewal strategy underlying Florida's long-range plan to improve education. The plan is built on three basic elements:

1. identifying clear goals and objectives;

2. finding out through assessment and analysis how well the goals and objectives are being attained; and
3. identifying additional ways of achieving the objectives (i.e., alternative educational practices) for reaching the specified goals.

The Florida Department of Education plans were not limited to reading; they included art, music, mathematics, science, social studies, and such interdisciplinary areas as learning skills, human relations, and employability skills. Enlisting the aid of the most knowledgeable experts available in each area, Florida has clearly aimed at including in its plans significant research that will indeed be used by teachers.

The strategy is based upon a performance objective base. The authors are fully aware of the controversies surrounding performance objectives and attending criterion referenced assessment. The purpose of this paper, however, is not to defend performance objectives, but rather to explain an effective way of disseminating reading research in a meaningful and useful manner to classroom teachers. Simply stated, that way is to provide alternative instructional strategies rooted in research as a means of achieving clearly identified goals and objectives, however they may be specified. Unfortunately, the Florida program has not reached the point of developing alternative educational strategies, so this paper can describe only the method of stating the goals and objectives and preparing for assessment and analysis. The more creative work and the most effective applications lie ahead.

In 1972, a Broward County team and a Florida State University team, respectively, worked on catalogs of writing and reading objectives. In addition to publishing *Performance Objectives for Writing: A State of the Art Survey* and domain charts for each area, they prepared several volumes of objectives and assessment items. It became apparent that the catalogs were incomplete. Moreover, since reading and writing are so interrelated and instruction in a writing skill may very well promote a reading skill and vice versa, additional highlighting of the interrelationships between reading and writing seemed desirable. In August 1972, the State advertised the project to expand and integrate the catalogs, and in December 1972 at the University of South Florida, the team headed by the authors began its work. One year later, the team mailed to the State Department seven volumes totaling 2,823 pages. Included in these pages are:

1. An Introduction, User's Guide, and Table of Contents
2. A Domain Chart with reading skills on the left-hand side and parallel writing skills, when appropriate, in mirror image on the right-hand side
3. Three volumes of reading objectives and three volumes of writing objectives

In addition to these volumes, the staff prepared perhaps fifty additional pages of paradigms for later development. One project was a sample bibliography of teaching materials tied to specific objectives, and the other was a specification of two alternative instructional strategies for several selected objectives. These projects provide suggestions to contractees when later phases of the educational renewal strategy are undertaken.

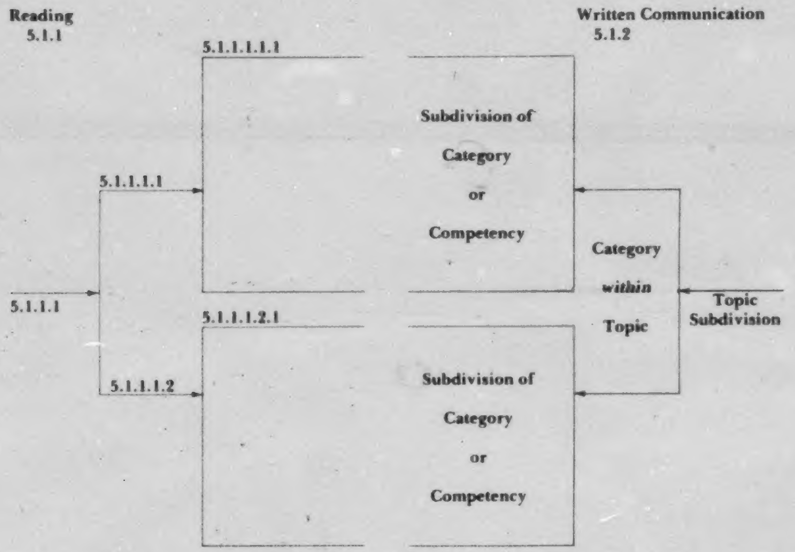

Reading
5.1.1
Written Communication
5.1.2
5.1.1.1.1.1
Subdivision of
Category
or
Competency
5.1.1.1.1
5.1.1.1
5.1.1.1.2.1
5.1.1.1.2
Subdivision of
Category
or
Competency
Category
within
Topic
Topic
Subdivision

Figure 1. How the domain charts work

1. Reading and written communication form mirror images
2. Each subdivision adds an additional code number

Figure 1 shows how the Domain Charts are organized and coded for the computer. *Reading,* on the left, for the most part is the mirror-image of *Writing,* on the right. Each area of both reading and writing is carefully and logically analyzed and placed in subareas and sub-subareas, and finally categorized according to the competency level of each performance objective. The computer handles such strict, logical, outline divisions, and the number code at each step provides a key to where each item fits into the entire pattern.

The following shows the major divisions of the first page of the Domain Chart:

Reading	*Writing*
Communications Readiness (both areas)	
Word Identification Skills	Word Formation and Vocabulary
Word Meaning Skills	
	Sentence-Level Syntactic (grammatical) Skills
Comprehension Skills	Rhetorical Skills
Reference and Study Skills	Functional Writing Skills
Recreational Reading Skills	Creative Writing Skills

On subsequent pages, each of these areas is divided into subcomponents, which in turn are divided into sub-subcomponents, and then specific objectives are assigned under each competency.

Objectives and Exercises

Figure 2 is a representative page from one of the catalogs. It shows how the objectives and the assessment items are arranged, and it reveals the extent of the computer coding. At the top left of each page is a number—always a *5*—which identifies this page as belonging to the English Language Arts in the Florida computer bank. The next number, *1*, identifies this item as being a Language Skill. The next number, *1*, reveals that this item is pertinent to Reading. The final number on the upper left-hand corner line places this item in the fourth main division of Reading, that is, Comprehension Skills. Subsequent subdivisions on the Domain Chart, Literal Skills and Details, are both numbered and named on the following lines. Other numbers on the page supply additional coded information such as grade level and type of learning. Then comes the preobjective.

The preobjective is a statement in measurable terms of an observable behavior to be exhibited by the learner. In short, it is what he will be able to do in order to demonstrate that he has learned something. It includes the situation the learner will face, the action he will perform, and the object on which he will operate. His activity will be measurable, or observable, in some way.

Beneath the preobjective is the performance objective, which is a more precise statement of the preobjective. It includes situation, action, object, limits, and measurability in more nearly precise terms, and it adds communicability and criterion for success, as well.

Under the performance objectives are two exercises to assess whether the skill specified in the performance objective has been learned. If the exercises are properly developed, they measure exactly what the performance objective specified; the two are equivalent in difficulty, and they are at the appropriate age-ability-interest level of students who will use them. Not shown on this sample, but appended to each assessment item, is a sample answer sheet with either correct answers or, in the case of writing, appropriate responses.

Alternative Procedures Needed

Florida has emphasized repeatedly that the reason for developing performance objective catalogs is primarily for the purpose of influencing curriculum to "renew education." Nonetheless, the first page of the catalog emphasizes that the objectives are "neither a curriculum sequence nor a set of recommended instructional procedures." The objectives can be invaluable for: 1) choosing objectives on which to build a curriculum, 2) choosing clusters of objectives around which to plan instructional units, 3) choosing objectives to assess learning, and 4) expanding teacher understanding of desirable goals. The catalog, however, will become functional only when the third phase of the strategy for renewal becomes operational and a future project develops alternative instructional procedures for achieving each objective. Hopefully, some of the alternative procedures will motivate the unmotivated, involve the uninvolved, and reach the unreachable who presently—often through no fault of their own—are not educable by currently common procedures.

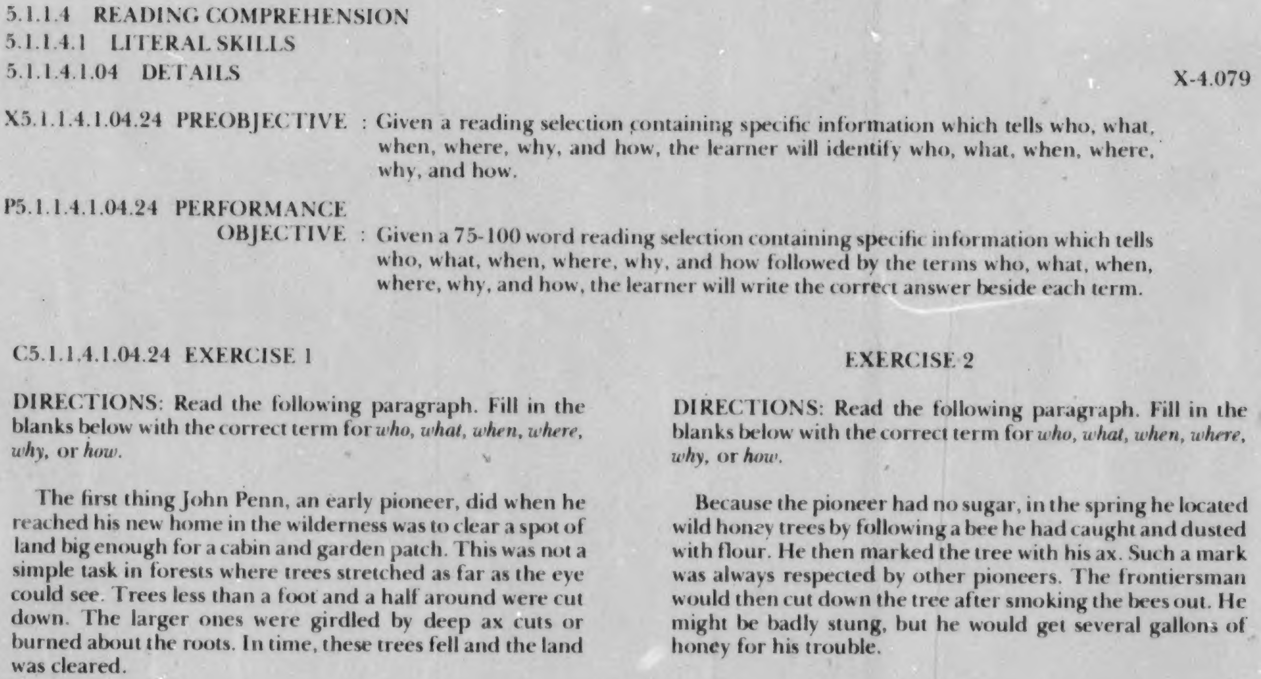
According to the pamphlet *There's a New School Coming,* the process of statewide assessment should occur only after the specification of goals in the catalogs. Actually, assessment has been going on for three years, even without the catalogs, and few people would insist that valid tests could be written only upon the completion of the catalogs. Now, however, the continuing annual assessment will be based on objectives selected from the catalogs; but, again, the major impact of the catalogs and their use in effectively bringing educational research into practitioners' hands must wait for the development of the alternative instructional procedures.

Resulting Recommendations

What about the method used in developing the catalogs to this point? What recommendations would the University of South Florida team make to people anticipating undertaking similar projects?

The preparation of the Florida catalog involved the following steps:

1. Preparation of a "State of the Art Survey." This was done initially by the Broward County group and involved a search of the literature so that staff members and State Department people were familiar with most of the literature on performance objectives, their development, their values and limitations, and existing catalogs. The University of



5.1.1.4 READING COMPREHENSION
5.1.1.4.1 LITERAL SKILLS
5.1.1.4.1.04 DETAILS

X-4.079

X5.1.1.4.1.04.24 PREOBJECTIVE : Given a reading selection containing specific information which tells who, what, when, where, why, and how, the learner will identify who, what, when, where, why, and how.

P5.1.1.4.1.04.24 PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE : Given a 75-100 word reading selection containing specific information which tells who, what, when, where, why, and how followed by the terms who, what, when, where, why, and how, the learner will write the correct answer beside each term.

C5.1.1.4.1.04.24 EXERCISE 1

DIRECTIONS: Read the following paragraph. Fill in the blanks below with the correct term for *who, what, when, where, why,* or *how.*

The first thing John Penn, an early pioneer, did when he reached his new home in the wilderness was to clear a spot of land big enough for a cabin and garden patch. This was not a simple task in forests where trees stretched as far as the eye could see. Trees less than a foot and a half around were cut down. The larger ones were girdled by deep ax cuts or burned about the roots. In time, these trees fell and the land was cleared.

EXERCISE 2

DIRECTIONS: Read the following paragraph. Fill in the blanks below with the correct term for *who, what, when, where, why,* or *how.*

Because the pioneer had no sugar, in the spring he located wild honey trees by following a bee he had caught and dusted with flour. He then marked the tree with his ax. Such a mark was always respected by other pioneers. The frontiersman would then cut down the tree after smoking the bees out. He might be badly stung, but he would get several gallons of honey for his trouble.

Figure 2. Sample catalog page

South Florida group made extensive use of the survey, the bibliography appended to it, and of other existing projects.

2. Preparation of the Domain Charts. Since the charts were due within a month of the beginning of the project (February 1973), the authors used the existing charts, sought help from the University of South Florida reading education staff and other consultants (Helen Robinson, John Simmons, and A. J. Stauffer), and examined domain charts or taxonomic outlines of other projects. They then built a tentative chart and subjected it to the scrutiny of language arts coordinators from five Florida counties and teachers of English from five public and parochial schools in three Florida counties.
3. The next major step should have been the designing of the physical arrangement of the actual catalog pages. Unfortunately, the staff plunged immediately into the fourth step and lost considerable time as a result of writing material that had to be revised or discarded.
4. The most time-consuming step was the actual writing of the performance objectives. Following is the actual procedure used, plus recommendations for a better procedure. Authors West and Tivnan were assigned one-third and two-thirds time respectively to the project. They worked with three graduate assistants who wrote objectives for twenty hours each week. Then, experienced teachers spent five hours one day each week in evaluating, revising, and polishing the materials produced. When the staff fell behind schedule, they shifted to the following system, which should have been adopted initially:
    a. The staff should have determined the physical format and verbal design of the objectives and written a number of specific examples.
    b. The staff should have divided the final competencies on the Domain Chart and each person should have listed, in phrasal form, a rough interpretation of as many objectives as he could think of for each of his assigned competencies. Under the competency for writing poetry, for example, phrasally expressed objectives would have taken such forms as these:
        1. Syllabicates
        2. Distinguishes between accented and unaccented syllables
        3. Marks syllables in phrases as accented or unaccented
        4. Matches phrases having the same rhythm
        5. Gives orally a phrase with the same rhythm as a given phrase
    c. When phrasal objectives for every competency have been listed, the staff should again seek the aid of previously published materials, consultants, language arts supervisors, and experienced teachers. These would modify, supplement, and delete the objectives listed.

   d. Rather than having directors, graduate assistants, and experienced teachers create full objectives from scratch without guides to whole areas, the staff would offer the phrasal objectives to the writers. The writers would then develop each phrase into final preobjectives and performance objectives.
   e. Staff, graduate assistants, and teachers should not write objectives at the tag ends of teaching days or on Saturdays. Instead, using the phrasal objectives as guides, they should work full-time at full pay during three summer months writing the final objectives.

5. The final objectives were carefully edited both by the directors and by the technical consultants furnished by the State Department of Education Research and Development section; they were then typed in final form.

The University of South Florida project staff takes pride in the Florida Performance Objective Catalogs in Reading and Writing. The staff knows that its work equals or exceeds in quality anything else available. The members of the staff, however, hold the same reservations regarding Performance Objectives that have been expressed well in many publications. They are well aware of the dangers inherent in accountability and of the futility of imposing sequence and structure on disciplines in which, as Dickinson (*1*) says about Writing, there are not ". . . criteria . . . for the discernment of discrete components in complex behaviors . . . nor are there criteria by which to establish a simple-to-complex learning sequence for a behavior in which many components function simultaneously in harmony with the thinking processes of the. . . [individual]".

Recognizing these problems and emphasizing that a performance objective catalog is valuable primarily for teacher education and reeducation and as a basis for developing alternative teaching strategies, the staff suggests such a project—a kind of comprehensive analysis of desirable objectives—as the basis for developing teaching strategies which will truly bring research into active use in the classroom.

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Teacher and Pupil

FOCUS QUESTIONS

- Are there human and personal qualities which may enhance teacher effectiveness?
- Is there a choice between permissiveness and directness in reading instruction?
- Can teacher traits influence pupil behavior?
- Do we need to succumb to the "culture of defeat"?
- Can reading decoding skills be systematized?
- How may teachers reinforce student behavior without threat?
- How can the school inform and involve parents in their children's reading growth?

Although Bachner addressed himself specifically to the teacher of the disadvantaged, the qualities he suggests for the reading teacher—positive, forceful, sensitive—apply under any circumstances.

*The Reading Teacher: Strength with Sensitivity**

Saul Bachner
University of North Carolina

The reality of teaching—the theory at work in the classroom—puts the curriculum into practice. The practice of teaching involves a live teacher, his methods, and his materials. The successful practice of teaching in any setting involves a good teacher, sound methods, and appropriate materials. What follows, while seemingly epigrammatic at times, is what the research shows to be of most value in working with disadvantaged students.

The teacher of the disadvantaged must take his students where they are and accept them as worthy human beings. He must be positive, forceful, and sensitive in the classroom. In addition to these qualities, the successful teacher of the disadvantaged must combine a vivid imagination and a good grasp of his subject matter.

The call for beginning where the student is and accepting him as a worthy human being has run through journals and extended works with the regularity of the hourly chimes of an old grandfather's clock. Holbrook (*3*) argued for development of an education which would accept the "low streams" in the same spirit that current education accepts the more academically talented. He said:

> Perhaps we can begin to develop an education based on a real acceptance of the nature of these children and their needs, and do away with the present hidden frustration in the "low streams" of many of our schools. If we can, we

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> can begin a positive revolution against underprivilege in secondary education, towards a truly democratic recognition of the needs of each creature in our community to become civilized and to realize his potentialities. From this revolution in attitude and content, changes in prestige, then in organization, then perhaps in social life may come—even perhaps demands for sound popular culture established in the school experience. Three-eighths of our population is a large proportion—some 20,000,000 by the time they all grow up, the "dregs." Their lives could be enriched by their school experience much more than they are at the moment—if we study their needs and try to meet them.

The implication for the teacher is obvious. He must accept the "low streams" as they are and teach them. He begins by listening to his students. He must care about what they think. The feeling is that teachers have not really done much listening to their students up to now.

Holt (*4*) claims that the teacher's deaf ear has been the real reason for the failure in language education. He says,

> . . . the real reason why our schools do not turn out people who can use language simply and strongly, let along beautifully. . . . is that with very few exceptions the schools, from kindergarten through graduate school, *do not* give a damn what the students think. Think, care about, or want to know. What counts is what the system has decided they shall be made to learn. Teacher's manuals for the elementary and even secondary grades instruct teachers to have "discussions" in which they "bring out the following points." What kind of a discussion is that?

Besides accepting the student as he is and beginning from that kind of objective position, the teacher must also have the positive belief that the student can learn. Expect him to learn and he *will* learn is the point of view. Aware of the value of such a positive attitude, Riessman (*5*) advises administrators to see that:

> 1) . . . teachers indicate in every way possible that they expect the slow children to learn. Some pupils are very well developed at an early age, and no teacher can stop them. But in the average development of the young person, even at the college level, a definite need for reinforcement exists. For example, the teacher should pick up what the student says, appeal to him, pitch examples to him. Most teachers do not handle slow children in this way. Impress upon your teachers that they must guard against the almost unconscious and automatic tendency to respond only to those pupils who respond to them.
>
> 2) Bear in mind that the assumption that the slow pupil is not bright functions as a self-fulfilling prophecy. That is, if your teachers act toward these pupils as if they were dull, the pupils will frequently come to function in this way.

Acceptance of a student and his ways should not be misconstrued. It is easy enough to accept a student; it is more difficult to accept him sensibly.

Riessman warns of a too easy acceptance which all too often results in the patronizing attitude and soft approach in the classroom. Patronization is easily discernible. Riessman (*6*) explains:

> The specific forms of patronization are manifold: the tendency to talk down to the deprived child—to speak his language, to imitate his slang and speech inflection; the assumption that these children are lacking in intellectual curiosity and conceptual ability; the lowering of academic standards, and the failure to set high goals for the deprived; the too-quick taking for granted that they are not interested in learning.
>
> Much of this is well meant. Academic standards are lowered because it is felt that the educational traditions and aspirations of these children make it impossible for the teacher to demand more.
>
> Thus, many people who defend these practices feel that they are being considerate and sensitive to the needs of these children. Actually, they are being too "understanding" in surrendering to the level at which the child seems to be. Perhaps it is not the disadvantaged who have capitulated to their environment, but the teachers who have capitulated to theirs.
>
> Present-day patronization is essentially rooted in the environmental determinist—or should we say fatalist—rationale. This view, by selectively stressing the negative features of the underprivileged person's environment, arrives at the pessimistic conclusion that these children have basic deficiencies which make it difficult to educate them; therefore, standards must be lowered.

The soft approach is a negative approach. Riessman rejects it and favors the "old-fashioned teacher who is well organized and firm." He, along with many others, believes the firm approach is the positive approach.

> . . . It is the old style, strict, highly structured teacher who appears to be the most popular and effective with underprivileged children. When this teacher is also lively, and builds concepts from the ground up, and makes an effort to "win the children to learning," she is the model teacher for these youngsters.

Weinstein and Fantini call it strength with sensitivity. Strength, however, is the overriding virtue in the positive approach. The respect of the children goes to these teachers who have it. Weinstein and Fantini (7) explain:

> The children seem to respect those teachers who can dominate them, those teachers who display enough strength to keep a class moving without constant disruption. In urban disadvantaged communities in particular, strength is seen as the overriding value. It is seen as control—mainly through physical dominance, but in a few other ways as well. The "con" artist is also seen as strong, for he is the one who can control a situation through his 'style' of walk and talk. But, whatever form it takes, strength is the virtue. The children, because of their hidden curriculum, regard as weak anyone who is small physically, backs down in the face of a challenge, is wordy without style, who is easily intimidated, who is sentimental and trite, who gets flustered, or who is too "goody-goody" or "phoney."

They define *strength* as something which includes

> The ability to initiate an identifiable structure, and to maintain that structure with a certain degree of compellingness and persistence even under exasperating circumstances.

To the above strength, tempered by sensitivity, must be added yet the third requirement for the teacher who would function effectively with the disadvantaged. Knowledge of subject matter in some depth is also required. This knowledge is essential for two reasons. First, the teacher of the disadvantaged must call upon more than the standard materials at his disposal in his teaching. He must have the imagination and background to do this. Reports submitted to the NCTE for its *Language Programs for the Disadvantaged* put it this way:

> Teaching and discussing literature with disadvantaged students on any level need not be done with diluted materials or adapted classics. Literature can and should be taught to all students at all levels. But, the teacher of the disadvantaged needs the imagination and background to choose material that is not only stimulating to his students but also practical and effective.

Second, if a real carryover is to be achieved, if the student is eventually to become an independent reader with a feeling for books and a desire for knowledge, the chances are a literary man must do it. The teacher of the disadvantaged, thus, should himself be a reader, a literary man. Alm (*1*) underscores this point of view with an either/or approach. He says,

> The English teacher who is not a literary man can only be a kind of carpenter in the classroom, never an artist. The high school student who maintains this wonder with books, who moves toward becoming a literary man, often does so in spite of, not as one inspired by, such teachers. Students in the carpenter's classroom may learn certain facts, have certain experiences with literature, but literature for them, unless by accident, can bring no gooseflesh, no glimpses of glory.

The literary man then, the teacher knowledgeable in his field, with strength and sensitivity marking his approach to teaching, and a willingness and desire to accept his students as they are and proceed accordingly is, thus, the man for all seasons in the classroom of the disadvantaged. It could easily be argued that he's the man for all seasons—period.

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The authors argue that the teacher's view influences the child's learning behavior. Citing evidence that teachers react and pupils respond according to expectation patterns, the authors draw a positive conclusion from realistic, if often pessimistic, sources.

Teacher Expectation: Prime Mover or Inhibitor?

Carl Braun
University of Calgary

Allan R. Neilsen
Beaverlodge Elementary School

Robert Dykstra
University of Minnesota

Storerooms, closets, and libraries are bursting at the seams with the "forgotten relics of fads and nostrums" which, if only briefly, promised to remedy our educational ills. In large measure, our easy seduction by "snake-oil remedies, fake cancer cures, perpetual motion contraptions and old wives' tales" (*2*) results from lack of clear differentiation between myth and reality. At least, in part, this differentiation has been clouded by misconceptions regarding "key and facilitating" variables in relation to children's learning. This confusion between myth and reality and key and facilitating factors has rendered teachers and educators susceptible to adoption of bandwagon panaceas rather than sound, considered remedies.

Innovative architectural designs tend to enthrall the educator and aggravate the taxpayer. Conventional and unique structures range from ameboid, sectional, and snail-shaped to schools in towering skyscrapers. These structures may contain egg-crate salt box classrooms, flexible partitions or wide-open learning areas which, in turn, may feature the latest variety in shag carpeting, floor heights, and sectional furniture. But these are nothing more than physical elements which may facilitate small group instruction, large group instruction, team teaching, or self-contained instruction. All these physical features bear no direct relationship to learning; in fact, for many children, they may become obstacles to learning.

Bloom (*2*) undoubtedly speaks for many when he says:

> If I could have one wish for education during the next decade, it would be the systematic ordering of our basic knowledge in such a way that what is known and true can be acted on, while what is superstition, fad, and myth can be recognized as such and used only where there is nothing else to support us in our frustration and despair.

If aspects of design and physical structuring are only facilitating factors, the key factor to success in education must obviously be the teacher. Certainly, research leaves us in doubt about programs and kits as key factors in the learning situation.

The past half century has left our library shelves stocked with research regarding teacher characteristics in relation to student learning with the vain hope that teacher-training recruitment could be improved with increased knowledge about candidates' scholastic aptitudes, G.P.A.'s, personalities, and characteristics. Most of these volumes of research can be summarized with the simple statement (*2*).

> . . . that the characteristics of teachers have little relation to the learning of pupils . . . . More recently, some researchers have taken the position that it is the *teaching*, not the *teacher*, that is the key to the learning of students.

While teacher traits may influence action, it is really what teachers do in their interactions with children, as well as the provisions they make for children to interact with each other, that enhance learning. Further, the premise is that what teachers do and the instructional decisions they make rest ultimately on the expectations they hold for individuals or groups.

Over 300 articles related to expectations teachers hold have appeared in journals and magazines since 1968. However, there remains a dearth of research discussion on the way expectations operate to inhibit or facilitate learning. There is a tendency to regard expectation, or "the self-fulfilling prophecy," as "something akin to magic or ESP" (*10*), something as elusive as "wishing can make it so." Finn (*8*) has aptly differentiated between this kind of aspiration and expectation. *Expectation* affects the teacher's input (what he does and how he does it) and *input* affects how children feel and how they respond; these attitudes create a chain of observable causes and events.

This article purports to examine a few of these chains of events which illustrate educators' beliefs about human potential and the concomitant impact of these beliefs as they trigger variable personal-social behaviors in children; behaviors which, in large measure, can be attributed to effects of social and academic stigmatization brought on by stereotyping and grouping. The thesis is that while academic groupings in school are founded on beliefs about a child's potential, these groupings, in turn, operate either to inhibit or facilitate fulfillment of that potential irrespective of the paraphernalia available or the school setting.

Estimating Human Potential

The waste of human resources is undoubtedly the greatest dilemma of our time. If it is a fact that only 10 percent of a person's potential is unleashed in his lifetime (*6*), it would seem reasonable that this concern should warrant priority in massive educational dialogue and research. We are tacitly unconcerned about the vastness of human intelligence and creativity. We still don't know what Johnny's potential is. All we know is that, at present, within the constraints of his motivational level, his limited opportunities to explore the vast unknown, the embarrassment and risk involved in revealing what may be interpreted as ignorance (not to mention the spurious validity of the intelligence test which he responds to), Johnny performs at level X. Performance at level X only too often confirms what we both expect and hope to find. The consequences: Johnny moves to another group or class; Johnny's parents receive the word, "we can't expect much from him, he is a fine child and we love to have him, but. . . ."

Obviously, in this episode, the teacher believes that a sparse, scattered sampling of Johnny's behavior projects his potential with some degree of accuracy. The action he takes in placing Johnny and the treatment Johnny receives subsequently are predicated on this belief.

Streaming or permanent grouping implies the belief that potential can be accurately assessed and, certainly, that this estimate within reasonable tolerance limits determines the upper limit of possible achievement. Vernon (*25*) has stated that "modern conceptions of intelligence testing require some revision of our notions of streaming or the segregation of brighter and duller pupils."

Without belaboring the obvious concerns about cultural and technical aspects of intelligence tests, what are some concerns relevant to IQ testing and use of intelligence information? Evidence suggests that the assessment of the child's potential is affected by the kind of information communicated about him. Studies by Beez (*1*) and Hersh (*11*) suggest that testers and teachers influence each other considerably in coming to a decision about a child's potential. Masling (*16*) found that expectancies held about a testee influence the way in which the tester will administer and score a test. More recently, Lasky, et al. (*14*) found that examiners' knowledge of testees' high scores on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test influenced later administration of another form of the same test. It is difficult to imagine the far-reaching effects of this subtle "unconscious conspiracy" when, to a large degree, organizational and teaching strategies and choice of materials are predicated on a child's potential.

Grouping—Stream and Achievement

There appears to be little doubt that, operating on a long term basis, grouping procedures affect achievement. Burstall (*5*) found marked differences between schools in French achievement of low-ability children. Schools in which teachers expressed positive attitudes toward teaching French to low-ability children showed significantly higher achievement of these children than schools where teachers had expressed negative attitudes. Moreover, low-ability children reached their highest level of attainment in French when they had been taught in heterogeneous groups.

According to Pidgeon (*18*), the fact that standard deviations on test scores in England (IEA Pilot Studies) are higher than in other participating countries is probably attributable to effects of homogeneous classes. He surmises that, to a large degree, this self-fulfilling prophecy operates on the assumption that innate ability of children has been accurately inferred. Based on this assumption, children are treated differently.

Marburger (*15*) attributed inferior achievement of low-expectancy children to the hopelessness conveyed to them through the nuances of teacher behavior. Ravitz (*19*) related this phenomenon directly to intelligence testing. After observing teacher treatment of low-potential, disadvantaged children for whom the intelligence test was obviously unfair, he concluded:

> The children were not encouraged to learn very much; the teacher expended little energy on anything but maintaining order and bemoaning her lot; as a consequence, the children fulfilled the low expectation, which in turn reinforced the original assumption that the teacher was right.

This "culture of defeat" (*23*) is replicated many times in settings where the teacher finds little but frustration in the day-to-day hopelessness communicated mutually by teacher and pupils.

It would seem plausible, then, that grouping on the basis of assumed potential is only an intermediate step toward bolstering teacher expectations, how they act toward children, and the tasks they set for their pupils.

Differential Task Expectations

Vernon (*24*) has postulated how low or high expectancy might be responsible for the underachievement of some pupils:

> Children who are relegated to a lower stream to suit their present level of ability are likely to be taught at a slower pace . . . .These initial differences become exaggerated and the duller children who happen to improve later fall too far below the higher streams in attainment to be able to catch up.

Specifically, how differential expectation can affect children's tasks is illustrated by Good and Brophy (*10*) who cite the hypothetical, yet highly plausible, case of the first grade teacher who expects a child to have great difficulty in reading. To avoid embarrassing the child, the teacher may call on him infrequently and then only to read easy passages. This means that the child receives fewer opportunities to practice and, whenever he has trouble reading, the teacher may provide the word quickly and move on to another student. Even if the teacher compensates by allowing the child first place in the lunch line, such inappropriate intervention strategies actually inhibit reading development.

Good and Brophy further illustrate how the teacher's expectations cause him to notice certain things and ignore others and the impact of the ensuing interpretations. To illustrate how this effects differential treatment of children, they cite the case of Johnny Bright and Sammy Slow who, for purposes of their discussion, represented children from high and low groups respectively. When asked a question by the teacher, Johnny Bright remains silent, furrows his brow, purses his lips, and scratches his head. The teacher, confident that Johnny is using creative and logical means to solve the problem, waits patiently and expectantly for Johnny's response. Sammy Slow, when asked a question, displays the same furrowed brow and pursed lips. Only this time the teacher interprets the facial contortions as confirmation that Sammy is slow and hopelessly lost, and quickly seeks the answer from another student.

Commensurate with his expectations of a group or stream, the teacher tends to set tasks which either "stifle" or "stretch" the attainment of the group and individuals within the group. These variable expectations may be reflected in the range of comprehension questions posed to the group. The low-expectancy group may be exposed to relatively little opportunity to grapple with questions requiring inferential thinking. This deficiency may have a dual effect. First, it may lull the motivational level of the learner into a state of lethargy. Further, since he is exposed only to lower level comprehension questions, the child will confirm the teacher's low expectation of him in any future task which requires inferential thinking competence.

A study reported by Doyle, Hancock, and Kifer (7) would tend to substantiate the notion that, whether qualitative or quantitative, teacher input varies with teacher assessment of the group's potential. Reading achievement in classes for which teachers had overestimated IQ was considerably higher than in classes where teachers had underestimated IQ. It was also found that teachers who overestimated IQs of children produced higher achievers than teachers who underestimated IQs. There would seem little doubt that teacher expectation resulted in either restrictive or expansive opportunities for learning according to the perceived potential of the groups.

Self-Expectation and Self-Concept

Increasing evidence shows that success in school increases the probability that a child will gain a positive view of himself and high self-esteem. Similarly, repeated failure or low performance in school increases the probability that a child will develop a negative view of himself and low self-esteem (*2*). The relationship between school achievement and the child's view of himself is unquestionable; the exact interactive and causal links between the two variables, however, are less clearly understood. There is some evidence that repeated success in school, especially at the primary level, increases the individual's propensity to cope with stress and anxiety. Bloom states that "repeated success in coping with the demands of the school appears to confer upon a high proportion of such students a type of immunization against emotional illness." The opposite seems to be true of the child with repeated failure.

Other factors relevant to the relationship between self-esteem and performance may be the degree to which a child risks responding and the degree to which he keeps on trying. These factors are certainly determinants of learner output. For example, a study by Kagan and Moss (*12*) yields correlations in the + .70 range between the child's expectation for failure in problem situations and withdrawal from such situations. If psychological withdrawal is a function of failure expectation, the implications are staggering for every aspect of instruction.

Speaking of the development of the child's potential, Gardner (*9*) states emphatically that

> . . . most humans go through their lives only partially aware of the full range of their abilities. . . . Most of us have potentialities that have never been developed simply because the circumstances of our lives have never called them forth.

In his plea for "talent salvage," Gardner stresses that his definition of potentialities goes beyond skills to include "the full range of his capabilities for sensing, wondering, learning, understanding, loving, and aspiring." Gardner ascribes failure to reach potential to the fact that failure is punished and success is made too precious. As a result, the individual learns to not risk failure, thus greatly reducing the range of things he will attempt. One of the reasons why adults learn less than children, according to Gardner, is that they confine themselves to the things they do well and avoid the things in which they have failed or have never tried. Gardner advocates the need for the "courage to fail."

There is little question that a strong relationship exists between expectation measures in the form of self-concept and academic achievement (*4, 21*). This relationship can be explained in terms of an inertia function or cognitive dissonance; i.e., behavior or achievement which does not conform to self-expectations is hypothesized to produce an anxiety state in the learner to bring the expectation of achievement in line with actual achievement or achievement closer to the expectations (*13*). If one holds the view that the concept of *self* is a learned structure (*22*) founded in verbal and nonverbal communications from others in the child's environment, the degree to which his potential will be developed and nurtured becomes a major teacher responsibility.

The typical kindergarten child faces the stark reality of receiving different reactions from the teacher, principal, and other school personnel; the differential treatment is affected less by his achievement than by his physical appearance, sex, color, or behavior (*20*). The child's first formal evaluations likely reflect these traits (*8*). These evaluations, whether verbal or nonverbal, shape the child's thoughts about himself; he may see himself as an achiever whose behavior will please the teacher, or a nonachiever whose behavior displeases and perhaps even threatens. McGinley and McGinley (*17*) have posited that a reciprocal success-reward relationship develops between the teacher and learner where the child pleases (and thus reinforces) the teacher by his performance (both correct academic and docile social) and the teacher, in turn, reinforces the child for his pleasing response. The opposite cyclical relationship tends to emerge for children in low groups with concomitant effects on self-esteem and self-expectations.

Conforming Pressure of Group Norms

It is fallacious to think that the prime function of the school is to impart social and academic skills. School is the theatre in which the child finds his first opportunity for prolonged and meaningful interaction with other significant adults. More importantly, school provides the first encounter with peer groups. These new faces, in large measure, comprise the mirror through which the child finds and develops his image as a doer or a nondoer, a leader or a nonleader, a reader or a nonreader, ad infinitum.

A whole complex of physical and psychological variables are expressed to the learner by his peers as well as his teacher. The "expectation-conforming influence" (*8*) of this peer setting becomes a further conscious or unconscious behavioral (social and academic) self-assessment through which the individual monitors his own performance. Moreover, his level of aspiration and his willingness to take risks in future tasks will be determined, at least in part, by this conforming influence.

The potency of group norms, including teachers' marks and judgments in regulating the amount of learning and the learner's view of himself, is aptly expressed by Bloom (*2*). He states that it is possible to find two schools with no overlap in results on standardized achievement tests, i.e., the lowest students in the superior school being higher than the highest students in the inferior school. Bloom notes that, under such circumstances, the highest students in the inferior school have a more positive view of themselves than the lowest students in the superior school even though the two groups represent almost identical levels of tested achievement. Indeed, the highest students in the inferior school have almost as positive a view of themselves and their capabilities as the highest group in the superior school. Bloom concludes that "it is the perception of how well one is doing relative to others in the same situation that appears to be the key link between school achievement and personality links."

Finn (*8*) confirms the shaping influence of the classroom environment on the child's self-expectation. The "physical and psychological givens," including the norms for achievement, signal which behaviors and standards are appropriate for each child.

Conclusion

From the discussion, the chain of observable events appears as superficial and simplistic as it appears credible. However, the paper argues the "high probability that the inertia of depressed expectancies set in motion in the learner's early history" (*3*) can create a "circle of futility" for both teacher and pupil. On the brighter side, however, the corollary appears equally true—that open, yet realistic, expectancies can facilitate positive social and academic benefits. All of this is a result of what teachers can do in the process of translating their beliefs into the realities of the classroom setting.

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Teaching the basic decoding skills, particularly to less able readers, is an enduring concern for many teachers. Strickler's investigation identifies specific techniques which appear to modify teacher behavior and improve pupil performance.

A Systematic Approach to Teaching Decoding Skills

Darryl Strickler
Indiana University

There is ample evidence of the need for increased teacher effectiveness in providing reading instruction. This need is particularly apparent when you consider the percentage of children who fail to learn to read adequately in relation to their potential. Additional indication of the necessity of increasing teacher effectiveness has also been provided by the findings of the Harvard-Carnegie Reading Studies, the First and Second Grade Cooperative Reading Studies, and by numerous reading educators who have explicitly stated this need.

Minicourse 18

"Teaching Reading as Decoding," the subject of the present investigation, was recently designed by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development to improve teacher effectiveness in aiding children in their acquisition of reading decoding skills. Materials included in the experimental version of Minicourse 18 used in this investigation consisted of a trainee's handbook which contained pertinent research and information related to the course content, six thirty minute videotapes which presented instructional and model lessons related to teaching decoding skills, and diagnostic and instructional aids for teaching decoding skills. The course consisted of five instructional sequences and a review lesson. Within each sequence, the trainee read the appropriate chapter of the trainee's handbook and then viewed instructional and model lessons of the sequence. The trainee then planned and conducted a microteaching lesson to practice and refine the specific teacher behaviors dealt with in the sequence. The microteaching lessons were videotaped by the trainee and subsequently replayed for self-analysis; the lesson was then replanned and retaught to a different group of students, and again analyzed by the trainee. The above activities were repeated during each of the five instructional sequences of the course.

The research procedures employed in the investigation were designed to assess the effects of training with Minicourse 18 on the teaching behavior of two panels of inservice and preservice teachers. The effects of the training were also investigated in relation to pupil performance on reading decoding tasks.

Purposes

The twenty-seven teacher behaviors studied were identified through a review of literature pertaining to decoding in reading which was conducted by the Far West Laboratory. The training of teachers to use these behaviors—which are purported to be effective in building children's ability to employ reading decoding skills—is the major purpose of Minicourse 18. The following twenty-seven specific teacher behaviors were studied:

Grapheme Recognition

1. Ask pupil to match letter with same letter
2. Ask pupil to describe how two letters differ
3. Ask pupil to find same letter in word
4. Ask pupil to tell where letter is in word

Grapheme/Phoneme Correspondence

5. Pronounce and show word to illustrate correspondence
6. Write and pronounce word pupil suggested
7. Present word examples for more than one sound of letter

Larger Letter Units

8. Present similar spelling pattern words together
9. Ask pupil to identify similar spelling pattern
10. Present contrasting spelling pattern words together
11. Ask pupil to identify contrasting spelling pattern
12. Present words with affixes sequentially
13. Discuss how affix changes word meaning

Contextual Clues

14. Ask pupil to arrange words into sentence
15. Ask to tell about homograph duality

Teaching for Transfer

16. Ask why or how pupil knew
17. Provide new word differing in only one letter from previously presented word
18. Provide new word containing pattern resembling previously presented word

Response to Error

19. Return to previously presented word
20. Write pupil response; compare with target word

*21. Ignore error

*22. Move to another pupil for answer

*23. Provide answer without allowing continued pupil trial

Negative Behaviors

*24. Say "sound letter makes," or "sound letter says"

*25. Pronounce isolated letter sound

*26. Ask pupil to pronounce isolated letter sound

*27. Pronounce word with unnatural stress

The purposes of the investigation were: 1) to study the effects of Minicourse 18 on the development of twenty-seven specific teacher behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills by a group of inservice and preservice teachers of primary grade children, and 2) to study the effects of the teacher training upon pupil performance in reading.

The effects of the training were studied by:

1. Comparing the pre- and postcourse teaching behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills of a panel of inservice and preservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18.
2. Comparing the teaching behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills of a panel of preservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 with the teaching behaviors of a similar panel of preservice teachers not trained with Minicourse 18.

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*Behaviors expected to decrease in frequency as a result of training.

3. Comparing the teaching behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills of a panel of inservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 with the teaching behaviors of a similar panel of inservice teachers not trained with Minicourse 18.
4. Comparing the mean gain in performance on reading subtests of a standardized achievement test of pupils in the classes of a panel of inservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 with the mean gain in the performance of pupils in the classes of a panel of inservice teachers not trained with Minicourse 18.
5. Comparing the mean gain in performance on a nonstandardized test of reading decoding tasks of pupils in the classes of a panel of inservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 with the mean gain in the performance of pupils in the classes of a panel of inservice teachers not trained with Minicourse 18.
6. Comparing the distribution of the posttest scores with the distribution of the pretest scores on a reading subtest of a standardized achievement test of pupils in the classes of teachers trained with Minicourse 18.

Hypotheses

Six specific hypotheses were formulated for the investigation. Three of these hypotheses were related to teacher behavior and three were related to pupil performance. It was hypothesized that:

H_1 The mean frequency of the use of twenty-seven specific behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills by a panel of inservice and preservice teachers ($N = 16$) trained with Minicourse 18, as derived from the scoring of postcourse criterion lesson videotapes, would differ significantly in the expected direction from the mean frequency of use of these behaviors in the precourse lesson videotapes.

H_2 The frequency of treatment and nontreatement by the panel of preservice ($N = 19$) teachers of twenty-seven specific behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills in postcourse criterion lesson videotapes, adjusted by covariance for differences in the frequency of use of these behaviors in precourse lesson videotapes, would be correlated to the treatment in the expected direction—training with Minicourse 18.

H_3 The frequency of treatment and nontreatment, by the panel of inservice ($N = 14$) teachers, of twenty-seven specific behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills in postcourse criterion lesson videotapes, adjusted by covariance for differences in the frequency of use of these behaviors in precourse lesson videotapes, would be correlated to the treatment in the expected direction—training with Minicourse 18.

H_4 The covariance-adjusted posttest mean grade equivalent scores on the Word Study Skills and Paragraph Meaning subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test would be significantly greater for second and third grade pupils in the classes of inservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 than the adjusted mean grade equivalent scores of second and third grade pupils in the classes of inservice teachers not trained with Minicourse 18.

H_5 The covariance-adjusted posttest mean scores on the reading decoding tasks of the Minicourse 18 Achievement Test would be significantly greater for pupils ($N = 115$) in the classes of inservice teachers trained with Minicourse

18 than the adjusted posttest mean scores of pupils (N = 115) in the classes of inservice teachers not trained with Minicourse 18.

H_6 The distribution of posttest scores on the Word Study Skills subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test of second and third grade pupils in the classes of inservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 would demonstrate less positive skewness than the distribution of their posttest scores on the subtest.

Method

A nonequivalent control group design (quasiexperimental) was employed to investigate the six hypotheses. Fourteen inservice teachers of primary grade children and nineteen preservice teachers who were engaged in intern and student teaching experience at the time of the study served as subjects for the research. The treatment—training with Minicourse 18—was assigned to seven inservice teachers and nine preservice teachers. The remaining seventeen inservice and preservice teachers served as the source of control group data for the study of teacher behavior. While the teachers in the treatment panel were being trained with Minicourse 18, teachers in the nontreatment (control) panel received training in open classroom management techniques.

All thirty-three teacher subjects taught a twenty to thirty minute lesson on reading decoding skills to three pupils one week before and two weeks after the training of treatment panel teachers. Both the content and the sequence of the lessons were specified in advance. Pre- and postcourse lessons were videotaped and subsequently analyzed, double blind, by eight trained raters to determine the frequency of teachers' use of twenty-seven specific behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills.

The performance on reading decoding tasks of 115 first, second, and third grade pupils in the classes of inservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 was compared, by analysis of covariance, with the performance of an equal number of pupils in the classes of inservice teachers who did not receive the training. Pupils in the classes of inservice teachers in the treatment and nontreatment panels used the same basal reader series for reading instruction. However, only the teachers in the treatment panel had access to the training materials in Minicourse 18.

Parallel forms of the Paragraph Meaning and Word Study Skills subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test, Primary Battery I or II, were administered to second and third grade pupils two weeks before and four weeks after the training of treatment panel teachers. Equivalent forms of the Minicourse 18 Achievement Test, a forty-six item test of reading decoding tasks developed by the Far West Laboratory, were pre- and post-administered to all first, second, and third grade pupils in the study (N = 230). The test-retest interval was fourteen weeks.

Findings

Hypothesis One. Comparison of the pre- and postcourse teaching behavior of the sixteen inservice and preservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 indicated that the change in teaching behavior was in the direction expected for twenty-four of the twenty-seven behaviors rated. The *t*-test for correlated means was applied to the data to determine the significance of the difference between the mean frequency of treatment panel teachers' use of the twenty-seven behaviors in their pre- and postcourse lessons. It was found that the amount of mean change was statistically significant ($p < .05$) for sixteen of the behaviors.

To aid the presentation and interpretation of the teacher behavior data, the twenty-seven behaviors were grouped into seven subsets of behaviors. Each subset included behaviors appropriate to a particular teaching task. Significant changes were found for behaviors within each of the seven subsets, although the greatest consistency of change was noted in teaching behaviors which were designed to facilitate pupil transfer, or application, of decoding skills (Teaching for Transfer), and in the reduction of teaching behaviors which tend to misrepresent the actual grapheme/phoneme correspondence of individual letters (Negative Behaviors).

Hypotheses Two and Three (Combined). The teaching behavior of the sixteen inservice and preservice teachers who participated in Minicourse 18 training was compared with the teaching behavior of the seventeen inservice and preservice teachers who did not receive the training. For this comparison, point biserial correlations between the treatment condition (training versus no training) and covariance-adjusted postcourse teaching behavior were computed. Results of the analysis indicated that the frequency of teachers' use of twenty-five of the twenty-seven behaviors in their postcourse lessons was associated with the treatment; i.e., the adjusted frequency of the use of twenty-five behaviors by teachers who had been trained with Minicourse 18 was consistently different, in the expected direction, from the behavior of teachers who did not receive the training.

Multiple point biserial correlations between the use of all of the behaviors in each of the seven subsets and the treatment condition ranged between .18 and .68. Comparison of the magnitudes of the multiple correlations for each subset of behaviors indicated that treatment panel teachers differed most from nontreatment panel teachers in their use of the behaviors related to teaching grapheme recognition, and in their decreased use of negative behaviors. A moderately strong association was also noted between the treatment condition and the use of the behaviors in the Contextual Clues, Grapheme/Phoneme Correspondence, and Response to Error subsets. For the Larger Letter Units and Teaching for

Transfer subsets, a low association was found between treatment and postcourse teaching behavior.

Hypothesis Two. The comparison of the teaching behavior of the two panels of preservice teachers indicated that postcourse teaching behavior was associated with the treatment (Minicourse 18) for twenty-two of the twenty-seven behaviors rated. Multiple point biserial correlations for the seven behavior subsets ranged between .23 and .74. The magnitudes of the multiple correlations indicated that substantial differences existed between treatment and nontreatment panel teachers' use of the behaviors in four of the subsets. The use of the behaviors in the remaining three subsets did not appear to discriminate, to a high degree, between preservice teachers who had received the training and those who had not.

It was found that preservice teachers' use of the behaviors in each of the seven subsets was correlated to the treatment in the same order of magnitude as the use of the behaviors in each subset by inservice and preservice teachers combined.

Hypothesis Three. The adjusted postcourse teaching behavior of the seven inservice teachers who had participated in the training with Minicourse 18 was compared with the teaching behavior of the seven inservice teachers who did not receive the training. The expected relationship between treatment and postcourse teaching behavior was found for seventeen of the twenty-seven behaviors. The range of the seven multiple point biserial correlations was between .11 and .67. The strongest association with the treatment was found for the use of behaviors in the Response to Error and Grapheme Recognition subsets. The multiple correlations for the Negative Behaviors subset indicated that the training had a moderately strong effect upon treatment panel teachers' decreased use of teaching behaviors which distort the grapheme/phoneme correspondence of individual letters.

Hypothesis Four. Multivariate analysis of multiple covariance of grade equivalent scores, with the pretest performance on both Stanford subtests as the covariates and adjusted posttest performance as the criterion, was employed to investigate between-group differences in pupil performance. A statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference indicated the superior performance of pupils in the classes of teachers trained with Minicourse 18. Univariate analysis of covariance indicated that between-group differences were significant beyond the .01 level for the Word Study Skills subtest, while the differences in performance on the Paragraph Meaning subtest approached, but did not reach, statistical significance at the .05 level.

The adjusted criterion means for pupil performance on the Stanford subtests are presented in Table 1. Mean grade equivalent scores are shown.

TABLE 1
ADJUSTED CRITERION MEANS: STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT SUBTESTS

	Treatment (N=92)	Nontreatment (N=93)	Difference Mean	Difference S.D.
Paragraph Meaning	2.73	2.60	.13	.28
Word Study Skills	2.95	2.70	.25	.39

Hypothesis Five. Univariate analysis of covariance was used to compare the performance of treatment and nontreatment panel pupils on the Minicourse 18 Achievement Test. A statistically significant (.0001) difference was found, again indicating that pupils taught by teachers who had completed Minicourse 18 training made significantly greater gains in reading decoding ability. It was noted, however, that the superior gain of treatment panel pupils on the minicourse test may have been partially attributed to greater familiarity with the tasks required by the test items.

Hypothesis Six. In order to assess the effects of the teacher training on the performance of high- and low-scoring pupils in the treatment panel, the distributions of their pre- and posttest grade equivalent scores on the Stanford Word Study Skills subtest were compared. It was found that the training appeared to benefit less able pupils most since the distribution of posttest scores exhibited less positive skewness and was more platykurtic. While relatively little pre- to post- change was noted in the performance of high-scoring pupils, a marked change was noted in the performance of pupils who had achieved a low grade equivalent score on the pretest. It is probable that the instrument used to collect criterion data related to this hypothesis produced a ceiling effect because more able students had already mastered the decoding tasks being tested. However, the fact that less able students improved significantly is seen as an important result of the training of teachers.

Figure 1 graphically represents the distributions of pre- and posttest grade equivalent scores of second and third grade pupils in the treatment panel (N=92).

Discussion

At the present time, there is a growing concern about the failure of so many children to learn to read adequately in relation to their potential, as well as an increasing awareness of the crucial role the elementary school teacher plays in aiding children's development of reading proficiency. While the training of teachers with Minicourse 18 will certainly not solve all of the problems of reading deficiency among children, the results of the present investigation appear to indicate the potential contribution of Minicourse 18 for increasing teachers' effectiveness in teaching reading

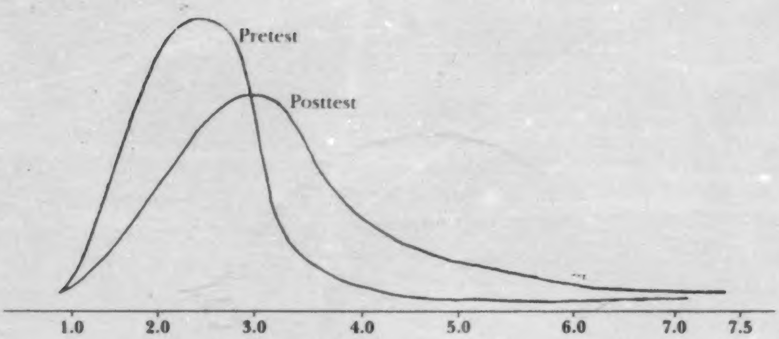

Figure 1. Pre- and posttest distribution of second and third grade treatment panel pupils' (N = 92) grade equivalent scores on the Stanford Word Study Skills subtest.

decoding skills. The results of the investigation also suggest that the training of teachers with Minicourse 18 may result in significant pupil growth in reading decoding skill.

The findings of the teacher behavior phase of the study indicate that, for the panels of teachers studied, training with Minicourse 18 was a significant contributor to the development and refinement of behaviors related to teaching reading decoding skills. The training with Minicourse 18 also appeared to have provided teachers with a more systematic approach to teaching reading decoding skills. Because the training was focused upon the development of specific teaching behaviors, teachers at different grade levels, using different instructional materials, were apparently able to adapt the teaching behaviors learned in Minicourse 18 to their individual teaching situations.

Viewed as a significant result is the finding that the performance on reading decoding tasks of pupils in the classes of inservice teachers trained with Minicourse 18 was superior to the performance of pupils in the classes of inservice teachers who did not receive the training. If similar results are obtained from the study of other populations of teachers and pupils, this finding could indicate that the training and subsequent use, by primary grade teachers, of the teaching behaviors included in Minicourse 18 result in significant pupil growth in reading decoding skill.

Although it was not the purpose of this investigation to correlate gains in pupil decoding ability directly to the use of specific teacher behaviors, further research with Minicourse 18 might be directed toward the identification of several specific teacher behaviors which result in the greatest gains in pupils' decoding abilities.

Teachers need not feel isolated as they work with children—not when so many parents are eager to share. Sloan presents a variety of specific methods whereby parents may become involved in the reading improvement of their children.

Increasing Parent-Teacher Interaction

Margaret Sloan
Independent School District #535
Rochester, Minnesota

We as parents and teachers, particularly reading teachers, do have mutual concerns. We are concerned about children and we are concerned about reading. Reading teachers at all levels are working to develop good readers: readers who can read and read well, readers who do read, and readers who love to read. What parent does not want this for his child?

One parent-teacher group in our school system surveyed its membership and identified some items the parents wanted to know more about. The top ranking concerns were:

1. What is expected of the average child's reading development?
2. How can parents supplement teachers' efforts?
3. What factors prevent a child from learning to read at the peak of his ability?

Parents want to know what we're doing in school and what they can do to help. Let us cement the relationship between parents and teachers (the PTA) through mutual planning. Better yet, let us interweave relationships between home and school so they work as one.

Informing Parents

How can the school inform the parents about the school's reading program? Perhaps the first step should be the for PTA to undertake a long range study of the reading program in the school. The PTA can devote several meetings or the entire school year to the study of reading. At these meetings, the reading personnel (teachers and consultants) can be called upon to explain the sequential skills program and what a child experiences as he progresses from level to level. The various stages of reading growth can be explained, examples of materials used can be displayed and discussed and minilessons illustrating key reading areas can be presented. One school PTA group did this very effectively by developing sample lessons in which the parents participated as students. It helps to illustrate the child's problem in learning to read if a brief paragraph can be rewritten phonetically and used as the content of the lesson. It was an enjoyable experience, yet several parents as they left the room said, "You made your point."

Explanations of the recordkeeping and the evaluation system and how they work are other areas of mutual interest and concern.

What else can the PTA do to help the parents learn more about the school's program? Some suggestions follow:

1. Arrange study groups around special topics such as the preschooler and his needs, the gifted reader, children with learning disabilities, the nonmotivated reader, children with physical handicaps, and the early reader. A number of these study groups can be functioning at any one time. Alternatives for the parents to select from are encouraged.
2. Provide training sessions for volunteer help and teacher aides. Give instructions in what is to be done and how to go about doing it. It is important for an aide to have his own special niche and for the teacher to know what the aide will do, how he will do it, and, later, how well he accomplished the task. To make these services valuable, long range planning is necessary so the aide can proceed without daily instructions from the teacher. Most teachers are busy getting their own planning done and an additional set of plans to study could become formidable. Some PTA groups have a coordinator of volunteer personnel since a stream of volunteers wanting something to do can be troublesome if their activities are not well organized.
3. Plan workshops for preschool parents. Help parents get the most out of their child's "magic years"—those years from two to five when he is learning language and developing physically, mentally, and emotionally at a rate faster than at any later point in his life. These workshops can help parents with such items as how to read a book to a preschooler, how to talk with a child to help him develop more effective oral language, how to develop small muscle skills, how to become more adept at visual and auditory discrimination tasks, and how to accomplish these objectives in a pleasurable atmosphere.

4. Promote story hours and book review sessions at the public library, or at the local TV or radio station. Help bring the public library to the people in the form of a bookmobile, a branch library, or a "Read and Swap Club" whose purpose is to promote the exchange of paperback books among the children in the neighborhood.
5. Plan periodic rap sessions, interviews, or newsletters where parents can ask questions and receive answers. Professional people in the community—the social worker, psychologist, pediatrician, optometrist, or school nurse—can be made available to the PTA groups according to some prearranged schedule.

Enlisting Parents

What can the school do to involve parents and enlist their services in this joint effort?

1. The school can establish an open door policy so that parents feel welcome in the school at any time. An informal, cordial atmosphere is especially important to weld the home and school partnership.
2. Plan home visits, periodic telephone calls especially to report good news of a child's progress, and social events which involve parents and school staff in a mutual effort.
3. Keep a list of jobs that parents can do on file in the principal's office; run a Help Wanted column in the monthly newsletter; or have room mothers, acting as talent scouts, seek out parents in the community and match talents with jobs to be done.
4. Maintain a list of resource people who can come to school and speak to a group of children about a hobby, a job, a country they lived in or traveled in, or a special skill they have. Days can be arranged periodically when parents can demonstrate special interests such as lapidary work, taxidermy, photography, and jewelrymaking. One school arranged several Christmas miniworkshops and the children selected areas of interest and were helped to make Christmas gifts for their parents. Parents helped staff these workshops. The areas ranged from woodworking projects, such as making bookends and candlestick holders, to art and craft projects, such as painting figurines and creating wire sculpture, paperfolded fish mobiles, macramé belts, and burlap wall hangings.
5. Poll your neighborhood for authors and have an Author's Day. This proved to be the highlight of the year for one school. The school adopted one author and staged a "This is Your Life" program featuring a toy wagon parade of floats around the gymnasium, banners across the school entrance, and welcoming speeches. Create "book

talks" by the authors or invite the parents to become experts on a particular author and to share their experiences and feelings about the author. The major purpose of all this is to entice more children to read and appreciate good books.

6. Train some parents to help in the library. Set up buddy systems whereby a child can be guided by a knowledgeable adult through the step-by-step process of preparing a written report on a chosen topic. A parent "buddy" can interact with the child and help him narrow his topic, locate suitable material, read it, take notes, and finally organize his ideas into a finished product of which he can be quite proud. "Walking a student through these steps" can go a long way toward developing independent learners. It is difficult for the classroom teacher of thirty students to give the individual help and permit the maximum degree of free choice needed to make the project a stimulating, rewarding experience.
7. Create a book corner where parents can sign up to read a particular book aloud or where a child can sign up to have a particular adult listen to him read.
8. Provide booklets of games and activities parents can use with their preschool children. Games such as "I see something in the room which begins with *b* (boy, book, band)" or "I went to the fair and I took an apple, a boat, a cow, etc." are excellent mind strengtheners.

Involving Parents

What can the parents do to help the teachers and the school?

1. Parents can volunteer their services by making puppets and by helping with classroom and school plays, hockey games, and other extracurricular activities. They can become Great Book discussion leaders and sponsor and lead groups at school.
2. Book fairs can be organized with the proceeds going for more books for the library, books for disadvantaged children in the school, or for some other reading project such as Reading is FUNdamental (a national organization aimed at getting books into the hands of children who want them). One classroom made ice cream and sold it in the school during the noon hour, with the proceeds going to purchase paperbacks for the room library.
3. Parents can help organize an interest day at school, canvas the neighborhood for participants, handle the publicity for the event, and help the neighborhood view the school as a social hub for the community where neighbors can gather and communicate mutual concerns. One interest day might lead to a special project such as

bringing more cultural activities (music, art, drama) to the community.

4. Lists of recommended books, good children's records, and educational games can be prepared and distributed for Christmas and birthday buying. Parents can read and review the books, offering "book talks" for the different age groups and parent study groups.
5. Parents can also be trained to hold book conferences with the students. Care must be taken that the conferences do not turn into quizzes or extensive book reports, antagonizing rather than helping the children. Conferences should contain a few literal level questions to get the facts straight; a few "what did the author mean when. . ." kinds of questions to enrich understanding, and some "how did you feel about. . ." kinds of questions to get the reader involved with the characters and the author's purpose for the book. The intent is to get books to children and children to books.
6. Parents can help with preschool roundups and vision and hearing checks in the school. They can make tapes for read along activities in the school media center. They can serve in a teacher aide capacity by making educational games, devices, and flash cards, and by monitoring the checking out and use of tape recorders, filmstrip projectors, and reading or media kits.
7. Perhaps the most effective and most gratifying type of work might be that done in a service or resource capacity. Parents can, with some training, serve as resource people to help young parents, or parents new to the district, learn to interact with their own child to establish a desirable self-concept, a healthy learning environment at home, and a desirable attitude toward school.

Advantages to Parents and Children

Parents who have had opportunities to share intimately in the work of the school express great satisfaction. Particularly, they note a change in attitude regarding their own children. They express appreciation for the following opportunities to:

- Help the child feel that he is important, that he can succeed when he tries something new or difficult, and that even if he tries and fails he will still be loved and accepted as a worthwhile person. A child's self-concept and the expectations his parents have for him are intricately related. He rarely questions parental expectations; rather, he tends to question his own personal adequacy if he does not measure up.
- Reward the effort, not the product, when the child is attempting a difficult task. Be ready to help him over the rough spots. Some feel the

rewards of success are hardly worth the cost of possible failure, and that tasks should be redesigned to insure success.

- Encourage the child to become independent, to assume responsibility for suitable tasks, and to complete these tasks without direction or nagging.
- Listen to the child even though he may not possess the vocabulary to communicate his ideas well, and respond to his frustrations and fears on a "feeling" level. He needs to be loved for the person he is, not for what he can do.
- Establish a suitable reading environment free from anxiety and pressure. Provide a time and a place to read and set a good example by being a reading family. Research has shown that good readers come from homes where reading is important and where parents and children frequently discuss school activities.

Yes, parents and reading teachers do have mutual concerns and it is preferable that they work together rather than separately.

Teacher, Pupil, and Materials

FOCUS QUESTIONS

- Can imaginative materials bridge the instructional gap of the migrant?
- How may teachers aid neglected migrant children?
- Is "content" possible through nontextual material?
- Can the secondary content area teacher undertake his own classroom reading program?
- Is the teacher essential in interpreting and guiding a child's reading?
- Why are paperbacks so abundantly used in secondary and college classrooms but so rarely used in the elementary reading program?
- What is the degree of cooperative partnership among publishers, editors, authors, and teachers?
- Is ESL only for specialized teachers? What does every classroom teacher need to know to aid non-English speaking pupils?

The author discusses the special plight of migrant children and describes Florida's attempt to meet the reading and learning needs of such children. The use of tutors, their training, and the innovative devices used will appeal to sensitive teachers wherever such isolated populations emerge.

Migrant Children: We Can Teach Them

Mary E. Jassoy
Palm Beach County, Florida

Migrant Lifestyle

Much study and research has been conducted for many years in the area of the disadvantaged child. Until 1965, however, little consideration was given to the most disadvantaged child of all—the migrant youngster whose lifestyle adds another dimension to the label, "disadvantaged." One of the outstanding characteristics of the migrant child is his constant change of environment. He leads a nomadic existence traveling from state to state, following the sun, as his parents seek or engage in agricultural work. He frequently does not know what state he is in; what state he came from; or where he will be the next day, week, or month. He may identify localities and events according to the crops being planted or harvested; in one instance, a child reportedly said, "My sister was born in the beans." To the migrant child it is enough to know that "here and now" there is planting or harvesting to be done, and that these chores provide the money that allows him and his family to exist.

The migrant child favors places where simple but adequate housing is provided. Frequently, however, other kinds of accommodations—tar paper huts, crowded and decaying barracks, abandoned shacks—must serve as "home" until the family once again packs its few belongings and moves on. The paucity of available accommodations forces the migrant parent to accept whatever housing is offered and to pay the rental fee which frequently is exorbitant. The fee cuts deeply into the meager earnings, leaving little for food and clothing and nothing for entertainment. Often the child is forced to work in the fields at an early age in order that he may contribute to the family income. Younger children, even infants, may be left unattended in cars or in fields, near canals or busy highways while the parents are working.

The majority of migrant families live for today. Their needs are immediate and money earned today must supply food for today's table. For this reason, most workers are paid at the end of each day's work. There is no opportunity to set aside even a small amount for the future. If inclement weather prevents field work, the belts are tightened and the family moves on to find another place where they can work.

The disorganized, rootless type of existence influences the migrant child. Because both parents usually work in the fields from sunup to sundown, the child may be kept at home to watch younger children. He sleeps wherever he can—in a crowded bed or on the floor. He prepares food when he is hungry—if there is anything to eat. The family style dinner and shared conversation are rare in the migrant home.

Special Educational Needs of the Migrant Child

Although migrant parents' attitudes toward schooling are gradually changing, the satisfaction of immediate needs generally takes precedence over readin', ritin', and 'rithmetic. However, even though some migrant parents resist sending their children to school, state laws mandate that the children attend. Most parents are afraid of any confrontation with the law and comply, at least to the point of registering the youngsters and sending them to school when it is convenient. Family mobility can result in enrollment in four or five different schools within a single school year. The need for the children to continually adjust to new and different schools, teachers, classmates, and curricula can cause emotional and academic problems and frequently accounts for disinterest and lack of application toward school work.

The interrupted schooling prevents organized, sequential learning. The dedicated classroom teacher may test the migrant newcomer to determine his learning level and may try to provide materials and instruction to meet his needs. Within the classroom, however, many other children require help and, unless the teacher has a capable aide, little time can be spent on the youngster who has arrived late in the school year and who may be gone the following day. In time, the child recognizes that scholastically he is not on a par with his classmates and feels that the other children are much smarter than he is. He has had few, if any, successes in school and, as the pattern continues from school to school, he simply gives up. He gives little or no thought to a possible future outside the migrant stream but may occasionally fantasize about the "real people who live in real houses," as did Billie David, a former migrant who is now an author and noted lecturer.

Although migrant families follow the crops from state to state, they do have one state that they consider home. Florida, Texas, Arizona, and California are home based states, that is, states where they spend the greatest amount of time, approximately five to six months. Florida is the home based state for roughly 40,000 migrants yearly. About one-tenth of that number settle in Palm Beach County, mostly in a area referred to as "the Glades," or "The Winter Vegetable Capital of the World." The ethnic or racial make-up of the Florida migrant population is as follows: 5 percent Caucasian, 27 percent Spanish speaking, and 68 percent Black.

Meet the Educational Needs of Migrant Children

Due to the deep concern of educators and other interested persons regarding how migrant children could be taught, in 1965 under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Act as amended by public law 89-750, Congress appropriated funds for the education of migrant children. The funds, allocated to the states and then disbursed by them to areas with large migrant populations, provide for special compensatory programs to benefit migrant children in the schools. Although final decisions and the total program coordination are at the state level, the Florida Migrant Section of the State Department of Education is decentralized, dividing Florida into three regions. Each regional office provides direction and consultant services to the several counties for which it is responsible. Cognizant of the needs of migrant children, the state and regional departments determined that a sequential, individualized reading program was a major educational priority. With funding and a sincere desire to help migrant children, the persistent problem of meeting their educational needs was explored in depth.

It was decided that the program, through its structure, must be one that would provide the migrant child, regardless of his geographic location, with continuing, progressive instruction in reading skills. In 1971, after thorough evaluation and pilot experimentation, the Criterion Reading Program (*1*) was selected as an assessment system which may be used with any basal reading program and/or with commercially or teacher prepared materials. The Criterion Program contains the ingredients for continuing, sequential instruction needed for migrant children. The program includes five learning levels ranging in difficulty from readiness (kindergarten) skills through skills appropriate for efficient reading at the junior high school level. The system identifies 448 skills, although many of them are simply more difficult extensions of skills identified in the lower level assessments. The 448 skills are stated in performance objective terms and are arranged in a hierarchy; each skill has a specific number for easy identification. The program is individualized, provides assessments and learning evaluations for each skill, and mandates the criterion for mastery at 95 percent. In addition, through correlations with a number of various reading programs, the system suggests materials that can be used to teach or reinforce the skills.

The criterion assessment system has now been adopted by a majority of the states having migrant children programs and, with the establishment of the Migrant Data Bank in Little Rock, Arkansas, it is possible to keep schools all over the country informed regarding a migrant child's learning level and skills needs. For example, when a child leaves a school in Florida, to go "up the road" with his parents to Georgia or Texas, the pertinent information regarding the child is teletyped to the Data Bank. Criterion skills numbers immediately identify the reading level on which the child is working and the skills on which he needs help. When he is registered in a school at his new locale, the Data Bank is notified and provides the school with the information, thereby allowing continuance of instruction at his level without the necessity for additional, time-consuming testing.

Language Arts Programs of Palm Beach County, Florida

Initial Program

From February 1972 to Fall 1973, the migrant child reading program utilized trained aides, titled teacher assistants. Their duties consisted of administering the assessments, keeping records, notifying the classroom teacher of each migrant child's strengths or weaknesses, and collecting materials that the teacher requested. With the exception of working with children in sensorimotor skills areas, the teacher assistants were not involved in direct instruction. In Palm Beach County, fifty-four teacher assistants worked with migrant children in eleven schools. Skill-by-skill evaluation in June 1972 indicated that, after classroom instruction, 58 percent of the needed skills had been mastered. The evaluation in June 1973 showed a total of 47 percent mastery of needed skills. This lower percentage during the second year's operation can be attributed to the returning migrant child's advancement to a more difficult level.

It was found, however, that skills acquisition as indicated by results of learning evaluations did not necessarily mean skills retainment by the child. Frequent opportunities to apply the new skills were not always provided and reexamination after a period of time often showed that children were learning skills in isolation. Transfer of the knowledge to new materials in different situations was lacking. In addition, the Criterion program has a serious gap which has created many problems. To be assessed at Level Two, a child does not have to be able to read. Level Two is a listening-speaking level and the child simply responds to the teacher's oral directions. It poses few problems and a child can usually master it with little difficulty. However, to be assessed at Level Three, a child must be able to read at 2.5 level. The gap between the two levels is tremendous.

Present Program

To provide for a more effective reading program, the Migrant Section of the State Department altered the guidelines for the 1973-1974 school year, creating the Migrant Child Language Arts Tutorial Program. Under the new organizational pattern, certified reading teachers have been trained and placed in schools to direct the activities of eight to ten tutors (formerly teacher assistants). Each tutor works daily with fifteen children, grades one through four, with no more than three children per class period. The Criterion system continues to be the core of the program and tutorial teachers' supervision provides direction for the instruction that is so necessary between Levels Two and Three.

In addition, the tutorial teacher is in a position to see that frequent review for reinforcement is included in the daily individualized lesson plans. The tutorial teacher also coordinates the Migrant Language Arts Tutorial Program with the regular classroom program, working cooperatively with the classroom teachers on a formal or informal basis. The classroom teacher may identify specific classroom needs of individual children and the tutorial teacher includes this specially required instruction in her instructional program. It is important to note that the migrant program is a compensatory program and is not intended to supplant the regular classroom instruction but rather to provide a valuable adjunct to it.

At the present time, in Palm Beach County, six tutorial teachers and forty-five tutors are working with approximately 650 migrant children in seven schools. Tutors have received in-depth training in the pertinent aspects of their position and are now directly involved in instruction under the direction of the tutorial teachers. Preservice training for tutors includes instruction in the following:

- the lifestyle of the migrant child
- behavior modification and self-concept
- the Criterion system
- kinds of reading programs in current school usage
- tutorial techniques
- lesson planning
- manuscript writing
- story telling
- introduction to equipment and materials
- use and care of equipment
- administration of an informal reading inventory

During the four week training period, tutors received a stipend of $15 per day. No tutors were hired until they had successfully completed the pretraining workshop. Hiring depended upon tutor attitude and aptitude, ability to relate to children, and the scores received on minitests and the final examination. The degree of selectivity may be demonstrated by the following: although approximately 100 persons attended the pretraining sessions, only 45 persons were placed in school positions as tutors.

Monthly inservice meetings with teachers and tutors are scheduled. In addition, each tutorial teacher conducts a daily conference with the tutors under his/her direction. The time has been arranged so that all migrant language arts personnel are free from instructional duties simultaneously. The tutorial teacher may demonstrate a new material or technique, give needed help in lesson planning, explain a complicated or unfamiliar reading skill, or discuss a particular child's problems and ways in which he may be helped.

Methods and Materials

The Migrant Language Arts Program provides a great variety of materials and equipment which are available to all tutorial teachers and tutors. The materials are stored at the Migrant Child Materials Center and are checked out library fashion. The emphasis, however, is on teacher/tutor creativity and experimentation, and many superior homemade teaching aids have resulted. One tutor devised a game which she titled "Phrasey Phrank." This game utilizes a double set of Dolch phrases printed on playing cards and the children try to match phrases in their hands using rules according to the familiar "Go Fish" game. The children have been enthusiastic about Phrasey Phrank and, more important, their ability to read phrases has continually improved. "Alpha Betty" is another tutor inspired game for young children, and is played by the same rules as Phrasey Phrank. Alpha Betty contains only upper and lowercase letters on cards and is used to improve letter recognition skill. Of course, the Dolch word lists and the noun lists have been utilized in many card and board games and several children have made up their own games, often using only flimsy writing paper for cards. The children are justly proud of their creations and report playing their games with brothers and sisters at home.

Somewhat more difficult games for more capable children were created by another tutor. One, a card game for teaching homonyms, contains words such as *bored* and *board*, *ate* and *eight*, and many others. When a child asks his partner for a word (for example, *board*), he must define both words as he makes his "pair." If he is unable to do so, the teacher defines the word and returns the unknown word to the pile. It will appear again, giving the child another chance to correctly define the word. The implications are apparent for spelling, as well as for word meaning.

The same tutor also created a game to teach antonyms. If a child has the word *sad* in his hand, he must ask his partner for *happy*. If he has the word *many*, he asks for *few*. Of course, many pairs of opposites of varying degrees of difficulty are included. This game is also a worthwhile educational tool.

An activity which creates interest is that of making peer produced "talking" books. The child writes his story or dictates it to his teacher. When he is satisfied with the story, he illustrates it on large language master cards, perhaps five or six cards to a story. Then the teacher or the child prints or types the story on the cards. The student then records what has been printed on each card. The cards are numbered and placed in a specially child-made (sometimes elaborately decorated) folder which identifies the title and author. The peer produced talking book then becomes part of the classroom library and any child may read it or listen to it on the language master. The child is extremely proud of his authorship and accomplishment and it is an excellent learning activity.

A visual literacy component has been used successfully in one school. The children were permitted to borrow a camera and take six pictures of things in their environment or of things of special interest to them. The pictures generally depicted farm scenes or equipment, although occasionally a more intimate home scene appeared. The films were developed and the students told stories about their pictures. They then wrote and tape recorded their stories. In addition to the obvious language arts experiences which this project provided, the children were taught responsibility. No child exceeded the six picture limit and not one of the cameras was lost or damaged in any way.

Because migrant children have few, if any, books or learning materials in their homes, teachers and tutors are now busy making take home packets. The packets consist of teacher/tutor constructed materials such as games, minibooks, puzzles, paper, crayons, and clay. The child signs out a packet and may use it for a period of time. When he wishes, he may return the packet and exchange it for another containing different learning aids. On leaving the school, to again enter the migrant stream, the child may select one packet to take with him, thus providing him with learning and entertainment as he travels.

We Can Teach These Children

The scope of teaching methods is limitless. The key to success is student responsiveness. Other important facets of reaching migrant children can be ascertained from the following tutorial teachers' replies to the question, "Migrant Children: How Can You Teach 'Those' Kids?":

- By first caring about migrant children as people.

- By providing language experiences to help children relate to an unknown world outside their narrow lifestyle experience.
- By teaching a sound system to help children unlock the unknown language of the printed page.
- By providing an avenue for success with games and activities geared to individual needs and interests.
- By enthusiasm and creativity—my goal being the development of innovative materials and methods that will stimulate child centered learning.
- By giving the children a sense of responsibility and awareness of their feelings and behavior and by my learning how to deal with them with complete acceptance and affection.

Analysis of the teachers' statements and observation of the many kinds of valuable and interesting activities which they are daily providing for the migrant children testify to the fact that there are, indeed, ways to teach such children. The ultimate proof may not come until several years from now when these migrant children are adults and are capable of making occupational choices because they have been provided with the educational tools that make such choices possible.

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While addressing herself to the specific problems of Vietnamese immigrants to the United States, Johnson offers a spirited, informed study of the growing challenge of English as a second language—as real for all of North America as for the United States.

Bilingual Bicultural Education: A Two-Way Street[*]

Laura S. Johnson
Evanston High School
Evanston, Illinois

Today the immigrant to the United States has an easier time learning English and American customs than his counterpart did one hundred, or even fifty, years ago. Then the burden of learning the language and customs rested solely upon the immigrant. He was expected to divest himself of all aspects of his former life and take on, alone, the habits and speech of the New World. If he could not make it, he found an unskilled job needing the energy of his dumb body, and he and his family were forced to tolerate the two-to-three generation time lag necessary for transforming an all-German speaking family, for example, into an all-English speaking family.

But the times are changing, though much too slowly if you ask native speakers of Spanish, French, and the American Indian languages who have been waiting centuries for their languages and customs to be recognized as the rich cultural resources which they are (*13*). At long last "monolingual mania" is losing its grip and officers of a national professional meeting no longer need to remind their constituents that it is not un-American to speak more than one language (*8*).

In fact, monolingual USA is discovering that the bilingual child is a gifted child (*2*). In April 1975, monolingual USA was suddenly plunged into a bilingual bicultural situation which demanded immediate attention. As the planes from Vietnam kept coming in, large and small towns in

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[*] Portions of this article appeared in *The Reading Teacher*, 29, 3 (December 1975), 231-239.

America suddenly found themselves needing to know something about Vietnamese language and Vietnamese culture—both of which were beyond the ken of most Americans despite their commitment to the Vietnamese in men, time, and money for more than ten years. Consider two sample headlines from the Chicago metropolitan area press (*3, 4*):

Church Agencies Here Spread Wings for Refugees

Vietnamese Refugees Need Help to be "On Their Own"

By early May, telephones were ringing off their hooks in the offices of state supervisors of bilingual bicultural programs as frantic classroom teachers wanted to know what to do with "these kids who can't speak English when I can't speak Vietnamese." By mid-summer religious and other charitable groups were beginning to run low on families willing to sponsor unskilled fishermen and farmers who not only couldn't speak English, but who couldn't find work in unskilled jobs because there weren't any jobs available. At last report, members of this group were on their way to camps in Arkansas.

As the summer ended, hysteria diminished and reality set in, for supervisors had calmed panic-stricken teachers with offers of help.

Funding and Help for Teachers

The Department of Health, Education and Welfare made available to schools with large numbers of Vietnamese children a per-pupil compensation based on a formula similar to Title I. "Eligible districts will be those with 100 or more Vietnamese students or where they constitute more than 1 percent of the enrollment" (*6*). In July, the National Education Association voted to support federal funding of programs to provide education for Vietnamese refugees and sent out brochures to the nation's 18,000 school districts telling them of resources it provides to interested districts:

- a Vietnamese-English phrase book to help teachers and students,
- a handbook for teachers on Vietnamese culture and background,
- a bibliography on textbooks for teaching English to Vietnamese speakers, and
- a resource book listing local Vietnamese or English educators who can act as school consultants.

Similar aids, though smaller and unpublicized, appeared throughout the nation as clubs (public and private), churches, high schools, junior and senior colleges, universities, and commercial organizations offered linguistic facilities. These groups had the facilities because they had been in the bilingual bicultural business in small, volunteer, and almost literally unfunded ways for many years, especially in the teaching of English as a second language to whatever ethnic group was most in need of help. In fact, many of the people now storming the graduate schools for advanced degrees in applied linguistics, TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), started as volunteers years ago in the Each-One-Teach-One Laubach Literacy Programs. So the addition of another language—Vietnamese—in the summer of 1975 did not pose a problem.

Thus, today, even the lone teacher, who is not working in a program with a group of students large enough to qualify for state or federal aid, should be able to get some help by contacting organizations or individuals in the area who have programs for persons whose native language is not English.

In locating someone who can help you with methods for instructing another person in English as a second language, you will become a more successful teacher if you become a student too. If you try to learn the language and customs of the persons you will be teaching, both you and your students will have more success in learning new languages and new customs. For it is on this affective basis—the basis on which, in effect, you say to the newcomer that you accept his language and his background as something so valuable that you want to learn it too—that he is able to accept you and what you represent. With this attitude he is motivated to learn what you have to teach. Research indicates that the most successful second language learning takes place when the learner feels that he is gaining something for himself rather than giving up something of himself (7).

It is important for the teacher in a bilingual bicultural situation to have a positive attitude toward non-native speakers of English. She needs to recognize that she cannot teach English as she was taught, because there is a difference in teaching techniques if the language to be learned is not native to the learner; also, there is a difference between Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages and bilingual bicultural education. These subtle psychological and linguistic differences call for some professional training if one is to be an effective teacher. The need for this kind of knowledge is evident in the enlarging enrollment in graduate schools in this specialized field of linguistics. Methods 101 still does not take bilingual bicultural education into account, as it must do if it is to prepare teachers for the pluralistic group of children and adults they will find waiting for them in their classrooms. The situation is becoming apparent, though, and institutions of higher education are responding to it.

World politics, economics, and social ethics have compressed what were once the light-years of distance between today's teacher and the world's diverse peoples into mere hours of time and tiny patches of space which we now share with others quite different from ourselves, requiring us to learn about them just as they are being required to learn about us. The Concorde, the 747, the Third World, the Fourth World, the Space Linkup, the Mars Probe—all have accelerated movements of peoples from all over the earth and channeled them into the narrow crossways of our international airports.

For example, if you spend just one hour any day at Kennedy Airport in New York or O'Hare in Chicago, you will be astounded in a way you would not have believed possible in the decade of only yesterday. A recent writer (*1*) summarizes the bilingual bicultural nature of the United States in the summer of 1975 in this way:

> Since 1933 immigration here has been increasing by leaps and bounds. If present rates continue through this decade, there will actually have been as many immigrants in the 1970s as in the 1890s—one of the peak immigration decades. One new American in five is now an immigrant. In the 1950s it was one in nine. In addition, unknown millions of illegal immigrants are pouring into America.

Kholseth (*9*) refers to the bilingual bicultural nature of these immigration movements to and within the United States as ". . . one of the most massive language shifts in world history." Lyons (*11*) breaks this down into specifics for teachers in Illinois when he says that 141 different languages have been identified in that state alone. He goes on to say

> The annual student racial survey in Chicago, September 1974, indicates that the non-English speaking population in Chicago has been increasing 15 percent a year for the past four years. The 1974 fall housing report indicates a 9 percent increase in the Spanish surname population in Joliet schools, a 21 percent increase in Waukegan, an 11 percent increase in Aurora, and a 15 percent increase in Rockford. A proportionate percentage increase in the number of limited English speaking students in each of these districts is predictable.

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (*15*) states

> . . . nearly 16 percent of the [American] population speak a language other than English as a native tongue. Spanish, German, and Italian speakers are the most numerous, in that order. Spanish is the only one of the three which has experienced substantial growth in the number of speakers since 1940, largely owing to increased immigration from Latin America.

This report states further that of the three-quarters of a million native Americans counted in the 1970 census, 31 percent are estimated to speak a native American tongue as their first language. In summary, the U.S. Office of Education estimates that at least five million children currently in school need special language programs because English is not the language spoken at home. This is a most significant element in the acquisition of a second language.

Where do these statistics leave us, the teachers of reading trained in a monolingual society which is being phased out by a bilingual bicultural society which we can no longer ignore, either legally or ethically?

Legally, we are mandated to do something about educating these children, either in English or in their native language, until such time as they have a sufficient command of English to continue their schooling in that language. In Lau vs. Nichols, the United States Supreme Court declared in 1970 that under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, ". . . all school districts are compelled to provide children who speak little or no English with special language programs which will give them an equal opportunity to an education" (*15*).

In 1967-1968, the Bilingual Education Act went further and provided funds to support a few bilingual programs which were to use the students' native language and culture for instruction while they were learning English. And bilingual education was upgraded again in 1974 by Congress in amendments to the Education Act. In the meantime, various states moved forward with their own plans for bilingual bicultural education programs. Since 1971 Massachusetts, Texas, Illinois, and New Jersey have enacted mandatory bilingual education laws. The states differ in specifics as to how the programs are designed and carried out, but in general any school district with twenty or more children who come from a home in which English is not the native language is to provide bilingual bicultural education. In Alaska, where the population is smaller and more scattered, the required number of children is eight (*5*).

In a bilingual bicultural education program, children are first taught reading and writing in the language they speak at home. During this same time, language minority children are mixed with English speaking children in courses such as art, music, and physical education, which do not require proficiency in English. At the end of the third grade, or whenever the child has an English vocabulary extensive enough to enable him to understand printed English words, he begins receiving instruction in English as a Second Language (ESL). Basically, a child cannot read with comprehension what he cannot first say and listen to with comprehension. The timing of when a child, taught in a bilingual bicultural program, can be moved to ESL is determined by variables, one of the most important being the amount of his exposure to English *outside* the classroom. Does he hear it spoken and used at home? At play? On the radio or TV?

The problem is not merely one for children; it is a family problem. Adults also need education to speed up and to ease their integration into the new society, and programs are more effective when the whole family is reached.

Innovative Programs

An example of the importance of the use of English in the home is provided by a federally funded program in the Bethel community in Alaska. Here preschool children and their mothers receive instruction in English using materials, vocabulary, and concepts taken from their environment. Training in this program is given by native bilingual teachers who have learned their techniques in the bilingual bicultural program at the University of Alaska. This preschool program at Bethel is beautifully presented and explained in a color film entitled "The Children of Akiachak" (*14*). The film is available from Audiovisual Department of the University of Alaska, Fairbanks, Alaska 99701; Bureau of Indian Affairs at Fairbanks; and Department of Special Education, Juneau, Alaska 99801.

The Alaska bilingual bicultural program also has taken a reverse turn in the North Slope Burrough School District at Barrow, where native parents have requested that their children, who had learned English in the home as a first language, be instructed in their Inupiat tongue as a second language so that they could regain some claim to their culture. Because Inupiat existed only in oral form, it is now being committed to written form so that books and other educational materials can be produced for persons who want to learn to read and write Inupiat (*5*).

Groups of educators throughout the United States are similarly engaged in producing bilingual bicultural materials for use in their own special circumstances. The Gallup-McKinley County Public Schools in Gallup, New Mexico, will soon produce Navajo and Zuni bilingual bicultural publications (*12*). Los Angeles City Schools have produced their own multilingual handbooks for children in the primary grades. To date these books are available in Cantonese Chinese, Mandarin Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Philippino, and Spanish (*10*). These aids resemble the phrase books travelers use on trips abroad, except that the children's handbooks contain sections relating to the principal's office, the lunchroom, the washroom, and the classroom. The materials are also available on tape and are used by parents as well as teachers and children.

A child's use of his native language when he is learning to read is a very important factor in his success, for success in reading in any language is determined to a great extent by the student's attitude toward what he is trying to do. If he hears, speaks, and feels what is already known to him, he is more comfortable than if he is bombarded by strange sounds and sights. Once he feels at ease, or successful, in reading his own language, he is more receptive to acquiring another language and the culture it represents.

A series of studies carried out over the past fifteen years by Gardner and Lambert (7), behavioral scientists at McGill University and the University of Western Ontario indicate that

> . . . the learner's ethnocentric tendencies and his attitudes toward the members of the other group are believed to determine how successful he

> will be, relatively, in learning the new language. His motivation to learn is thought to be determined by his attitudes toward the other group in particular and toward foreign people in general and by his orientation toward the learning task itself.

Gardner and Lambert describe in detail their experiments with French and English speaking students in Montreal, Maine, Louisiana, and Connecticut. They also include a study conducted in the Philippine Islands, with English as the target language (the foreign language to be learned) rather than French as the target language in the North American studies. Gardner and Lambert chose the Philippines because "... we have learned that each setting and each ethnolinguistic group has its own fascinating pattern of sociopsychological influences that change in unexpected ways the manner in which attitudes and motivation play their roles."

These studies on attitude and motivation are important to reading teachers because they infer that attitude, or acceptance on the part of the learner of the language to be learned, is determined by how strongly the student desires to integrate himself with the "other" group. Gardner and Lambert define *integration* as association with the second language, whereas *identification* is usually associated with the first language. For example, they would say that a native speaker of English has finally *identified* with French as a second language when he finds himself unthinkingly praying in French.

A Two-Way Street

The conclusions reading teachers can draw from the statistics and studies are that we need to work just as diligently at acquiring the language and the customs of the children we are working with as the children must work to acquire English and the customs of their English speaking teachers. Teachers represent one of the components in the *bi* of bilingual bicultural education. It is indeed a two-way street.

But how do we accomplish this? First of all, we can put ourselves in the place of the children. Let us return to the airport again; let us watch the bewildered children come down the ramp, pause, and stare at the crowds in the waiting room. As we watch, we can glimpse some of the children who may be in our classrooms tomorrow.

What can we say to them? Or they to us? Inherently each one of us feels the need to speak, but for the present we are dumb. We do not know which sounds to make. Even if we did, the sounds might come out wrong and we would feel ashamed of the mistakes we were making. We might try body language, but this could be risky too.

Do we shake hands or rub noses? Do we stand close to the child or two feet apart? Do we look each other in the eye, or avoid even a sideways peek? Should a child be given a friendly pat on the head just to let him know someone wants to be his friend? Or would such a gesture send him into a trauma? I see a name tag on the child's coat, but which end of the tag do I read first?

Confused by questions I have never had to ask before, but which now must be asked, I find myself with few answers. But I must have them, for some of these children will be in my class tomorrow. And if not tomorrow, surely the next day, or the day after that.

I wrestle trying to find answers as I make up my class roll book back in school, using English phonetics on data processing's list of names that do not phoneticize. When I come to the end of the current list, I add the familiar Jims, Steves, Marys, and Sherries of Robin Crest Lane and Hilltop Drive. I pause, and then leave more space for the names of more children with all kinds of odd letter combinations and sounds.

But this is the way it should always have been, and I must learn some more about how to become some child's right kind of teacher. Even before today, students like Manuel and Blue Earth should have been in my class. They never have been—but they will be here soon.

Manuel in Chicago

Manuel, in fact, has already moved into a suburb not far from the one my school is in. How does a Chicano like Manuel, speaking almost no English (except what he has picked up as he gathers tomatoes, pumpkins, and corn in the truck farms that dot the fringes of the Chicago metropolitan area), manage to show up in a "good public junior high school" in a wealthy and exclusive northwest suburb?

"We've never had anyone like him before," the language arts teacher in Manuel's school whispers to me at a professional meeting. "I don't know what to do with him. I think he's bright—the mischief he thinks up is creative—but right now he's just a troublemaker in every class he's in. The kids laugh at him and he is always getting into fights with them. I wish he'd go back where he came from and leave us in peace like we used to have."

"Where did he come from?" I asked.

"Mexico, I guess, or from somewhere down there. His family has been coming up here for years to work on the truck farms, but this year when the season ended they found a place to live in our district, and decided to stay so Manuel could get a good American education. He speaks just enough English to let me know he wants a biology book in Spanish. But where can I get one? And who do I get to help when he needs help with it? We don't have any Spanish speaking teachers in our school. Furthermore, if he's going to live here, he ought to learn English and the sooner he starts, the better for him and for us. But where do I begin with him? I can't put him in with the first graders."

Fortunately for Manuel and his language arts teacher, Illinois has answers to some of the questions suddenly raised by bilingual bicultural children in schools which never expected to have them and which aren't prepared for them when they do arrive. The Illinois Office of Education, through its Department of Urban and Bicultural Education, has established several Bilingual Education Service Centers throughout the state, one of which is located within twenty miles of Manuel's school. In short order, Manuel's teacher visited this center, obtained not only a seventh grade biology book in Spanish, but also much other information about where she can get materials not only in Spanish but in many other languages, for it is possible that some of the other 141 languages in Illinois may also appear in her school one of these days. These centers have materials for Grades K-12, Adult and Vocational Education, and inservice programs for teachers. They publish curriculum materials guides which list materials available in several languages, with addresses of where these materials can be obtained.

Manuel's teacher needs such a service center because, despite his troubles at school (which have improved now that he has some Spanish books), Manuel likes it here and he intends to stay.

Where to Find Assistance

There is help for the teacher who needs it. In addition to contacting state departments of public instruction for information about what a specific state is doing for bilingual bicultural education, and checking out the local resources described earlier in this article, a teacher can also join professional organizations such as TESOL, the International Reading Association, or state and national bilingual bicultural groups. Memberships will provide opportunities to attend meetings where information is available; and just talking and exchanging ideas with teachers who have similar situations to deal with can be helpful. Professional organizations also provide journals which advertise materials. Getting on the mailing lists of publishers and suppliers of bilingual bicultural materials is a must.

Sources for Bilingual Bicultural Materials and Information

English as a Second Language Program
Center for Applied Linguistics
1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

James Alatis, Executive Secretary
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
School of Languages and Linguistics
Georgetown University
Washington, D.C. 20007

National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, Illinois 61801

Dr. Albar A. Peña, President
National Association for Bilingual Education
The University of Texas
4242 Piedras Drive East
San Antonio, Texas 78285

A search through the various education indices at any public or university library will also reveal articles on bilingual bicultural education.

No matter how well read or well versed teachers may be in the problems of bilingual education, and no matter how warm or receptive they are to individual needs, there is still an urgent need to have qualified bilingual consultants available to teachers to help solve the immediate problem: "How do I communicate with my student?" Professional organizations would do well to urge state departments of education and school boards to provide language consultants on a full-time basis in areas where language sets up a roadblock to effective communication.

In short, what today's teacher needs to do is supplement the courses she had when she was in college by updating her reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills in some language other than her native language. She needs to do everything she can to integrate herself with the child who is learning English and its customs so that the day will come when both teacher and student discover that they have passed through *integration* and arrived at the point of *identification* where they can pray in each other's language.

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What can the "unprepared" secondary teacher do about the reading and study skills of her pupils? With straightforward logic and simple language, Harker outlines highly practical procedures which the concerned teacher can apply in any classroom.

A Classroom Reading Program

W. John Harker
University of Victoria

Successful secondary developmental reading instruction must be centered in the content area classroom where learning in the secondary curriculum takes place. Therefore, the question is, "What can the secondary content area teacher do to improve reading in his classroom?"

Despite the obvious need for teacher expertise in order to effect successful secondary reading instruction, the weakness of secondary teachers' preservice preparation in reading has become almost a cliché. During the 1960s, a number of studies pointed to this weakness (*2, 4, 11, 13*), and the current scene appears to be no brighter. In 1973, Estes and Piercey (*6*) reported a survey of state certification agencies in the United States which showed that only nine states required preservice education in reading for the certification of secondary teachers. In the same year, Harker (*8*) reported that only 54 percent of Canadian teacher education institutions offering programs in secondary education provided courses in secondary developmental reading, and in only one institution was this course a program requirement.

Given the present status of teacher preservice preparation for reading instruction, it is clear that if developmental reading is to be integrated with the teaching of content in the secondary grades, many teachers will have to teach reading with little or no preparation to do so. For this reason, it is not surprising to find a recent article entitled, "Becoming a Reading Teacher—On Short Notice" (*5*), in which the author describes the plight of the unprepared secondary content area teacher who finds himself unexpectedly confronted with the task of improving reading in his classroom. The question therefore becomes, what can the inadequately prepared secondary content area teacher do in order to meet the reading and study needs of his students? This paper is concerned with delineating a sequence of steps which the teacher can take, given the resources of the conventional teaching situation. These steps can be implemented within the framework of a schoolwide developmental reading program, or within the classroom itself if a single teacher or group of teachers wishes to initiate reading instruction.

Determining Skills

The first step for the teacher is to determine the specific reading and study skills required by students for content learning. This must occur before instruction begins. Here the teacher tries to place himself in the position of his students, taking into account their previous content learning, their general experiential backgrounds, and their expected level of content mastery. The teacher analyzes the content learning tasks which will confront his students and asks himself what specific reading and study skills his students will need in order to learn this content. By this exercise, the sequence of understandings which students are expected to achieve will become clear. And more important, the reading and study skills necessary to achieve these understandings and the appropriate sequence for teaching them will also become clear.

Determining Status

Once the teacher has established the reading and study skills necessary for successful student learning in his particular content area, the next step is to determine the extent to which students possess these skills.

Marksheffel (*10*) has estimated that the range of reading ability encountered in the normal secondary content area classroom is between six and nine grade levels. To determine the range in his particular classroom, the teacher may resort to standardized group reading achievement tests. Two limitations are apparent in the use of these tests in the content area classroom: 1) the tests tend to place students at their frustration level in reading rather than at their instructional level (*3, 14*), and 2) the tests give a measure of general reading ability rather than specific reading ability in particular content material. Research has consistently shown that, to a considerable degree, reading achievement is specific to particular content material, especially at higher levels of understanding (*1, 9, 15*).

Because of these limitations, it is usually more appropriate to use teacher made informal group tests based on the actual content area reading material used in the classroom. These tests can be designed to require students to demonstrate their level of proficiency in the performance of the specific reading and study skills which the teacher has determined to be necessary for content learning. The tests serve a diagnostic function in that they can isolate particular strengths and weaknesses in the skills which students will require for content learning. For example, a science teacher may determine that the learning demanded of students in a unit of his course requires the ability to understand data presented graphically. The obvious step to take before students read this material is to determine whether they can, in fact, read graphs successfully. If they can, they are ready to undertake the content learning task; if they cannot, the teacher will know that instruction in graphs is required for his students to learn the content.

Selecting Materials

When student reading status has been assessed and particular skills deficiencies determined, the next step is to gather reading materials which represent the range of reading abilities found in the classroom and which provide practice in particular areas of weakness. Since one textbook seldom meets all these needs, students will be better served if a wide variety of content reading material is provided. The teacher's ultimate objective is to teach content; the textual material through which content is learned is the means to this end.

In gathering material, the total resources of the school and the community can be exploited. Sources of alternate reading material containing information pertinent to the teacher's content area teaching objectives can include materials collected by other teachers, materials from the school library, clipped magazine and newspaper materials, supplementary texts, complementary material solicited from industry and community agencies, and class projects completed by students in previous years. Two readability formulas (*7, 12*) have been devised by which the teacher can quickly determine the general reading difficulty of these materials. No disservice will be done to students if the teacher selects alternate material to the textbook, provided such material contains information relevant to students' content learning.

Classroom Organization

When student needs have been determined and appropriate materials have been gathered, the teacher must decide upon patterns of classroom organization to maximize teaching effectiveness. The most obvious organizational pattern is to group students in terms of their determined reading levels and to teach content using material written at the appropriate level of reading difficulty. Certainly this procedure is an improvement over the "one textbook for all students" approach, and in some circumstances, this pattern of organization can be effective. But this approach could freeze students at their existing reading levels and prevent their learning to read and study content material at higher reading levels. When used exclusively, this approach can be as damaging to students' self-concepts and motivations as constantly expecting them to learn from reading material at their frustration level. Alternate organizational patterns should be evolved which, while furthering students' content learning, also permit the teacher to develop students' reading and study skills. Such alternatives can include specific needed skills development grouping; interest grouping; social grouping; grouping for research projects; team grouping; and, occasionally, arbitrary heterogeneous grouping. It is important to realize that these different patterns can operate in the same classroom over the same extended time period. On a day-to-day basis, the teacher will implement the organizational pattern which best accommodates the specific demands placed on students by different content area reading learning situations.

Evaluation

The success of a classroom reading program will be determined by the degree to which students learn content from reading. This is a functional approach to evaluation. The measurement of student growth in reading and study skills will be meaningless if done in isolation from the content area learning situations in which these skills are applied. Evaluation may employ teacher made tests such as were described for use in the initial determination of student reading status. But an experienced content area teacher has an additional tool at his disposal—direct observation. Very often, the most perceptive assessments of student progress can be made in this manner. This informal, ongoing evaluation will be based on the day-to-day observation of students' success with reading and reading related assignments. Throughout this process, students' initial reading status will be kept in mind as the base line from which progress can be determined. According to the degree of success students demonstrate, subsequent assignments will be varied in difficulty and complexity. In this manner, evaluation becomes integrated with teaching and each process informs the other.

A less direct method of evaluating student achievement in content area reading is through performance on content area tests. To the extent that the content area learning measured by these tests derives from reading, the tests will measure students' reading achievement as well as their content area learning. This method will be particularly revealing when students' previous success in content area learning has been inhibited by reading difficulties. In this context, it is unnecessary to point out the absurdity of measuring students' mastery of content material by means of tests which demand a higher reading level than students have reached or than they have been required to use in the classroom learning situation. Here there is an obvious need for the differential evaluation of content learning using tests adjusted to students' various reading levels.

Conclusion

Despite the continued lack of adequate professional preparation of secondary teachers in reading, there are steps which the secondary classroom content area teacher can take in order to improve the reading of his students. The steps outlined here provide only the most general guidelines to teachers in different content areas. Ultimately, the content area teacher is the reading expert and the person best able to determine the specialized reading and study skills necessary for successful student learning in his area. For the general implementation of reading in the secondary grades, it is necessary for secondary teachers to overcome their traditional reluctance to teach the reading and study skills which pertain to learning in their respective content areas. Over the years, there has been a great deal of discussion concerning the need for comprehensive secondary reading programs. While hopefully awaiting broader programs, a reasonable alternative is for every secondary content area teacher to undertake his own classroom reading program.

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Is the teacher or the book alone, unaided by the teacher, more important in bringing about attitudinal change? The author investigated the possibility of modifying children's attitudes about foreign countries through reading about them *without* teacher intervention. Disproval of the hypothesis serves only to reinforce the vital role of the teacher in guiding children's reading.

Children's Reading and Attitude Change

Eric A. Kimmel
Indiana University at South Bend

It is often said that one of the advantages a child gains by being a good reader is the opportunity to develop healthy attitudes toward members of other racial, religious, and national groups. The assumption is that by learning to identify and sympathize with the literary characters he encounters, a child will be better able to resist whatever prejudices or unconscious intolerances infect his home, school, or community environment. As Perry (7) states:

> A human relations program centered upon literary experiences has the potential for clarifying moral imperatives and expanding social consciousness as readers explore the problems of racism, poverty, and cultural isolation.

A human relations program involves considerably more than handing a child a copy of *The Snowy Day* or *Stevie* and expecting him to come back the next day with an overwhelming love and concern for black children. If it is to have any hope of success, such a program must provide children with the mature guidance of competent and sincere parents, teachers, and librarians who can lead discussions based on issues raised by individual books and cause their groups to confront honestly the prejudices which they might hold.

The Problem

All this is readily and easily acknowledged, but the question still remains as to what role the book alone plays in the process of attitude change. Most views expressed on the subject are usually variations of two different, though not necessarily exclusive, viewpoints. The first viewpoint maintains that the book itself makes little difference; the significant factor in promoting attitude change is the competence of the adult working with the children. According to this view, a group of children could conceivably improve their attitudes toward Jews by reading *Mein Kampf*; assuming, of course, that the adult leader used Hitler's ravings to show the group how a bigot cleverly weaves rather convincing arguments out of half-truths, misconceptions, and outright lies. Under the leader's guidance, the children might proceed to analyze similar prejudices lying below the surface of their home or community environments. Conceivably, such discussions as these might result in the elimination of many unfair and unhealthy attitudes and, therefore, it might be said that attitudes improved as a result of reading *Mein Kampf*. But it would be nonsense to claim that the book alone brought about the improvement.

The second point of view maintains that, no matter how competent the leader, the success of a human relations program is closely linked to the quality of literature used as a basis for discussion. Books make a difference. The leader is undeniably important, but so are the tools he uses. Carlsen (*1*) notes:

> Literature, by its very nature, is selective and suggests integrations, connections, insights into experience, and values which the individual might not otherwise find for himself. At its best, literature confronts the reader with the basic eternal problems of human beings, thus helping the individual to see himself as a part of an ongoing history.

It is quite reasonable to assume, therefore, that the amount of attitude change in a group reading Frank Bonham's *Durango Street* and being led by a modestly competent leader would exceed that of a second group reading *Batman* and being led by someone with the understanding and stature of the late Eleanor Roosevelt.

In practice, of course, the best leaders invariably try to obtain the best books when they attempt to bring about attitude change. However, the initial problem still remains. What is the role of the book in such a situation? At what point does the effectiveness of the book end and the influence of personal interaction with a sympathetic adult leader begin?

Review of Literature

Although there are many opinions, the amount of controlled research dealing with the role of books in the process of changing attitudes is extremely sparse. To date, the most noteworthy studies in the field are those of Jackson (*4*), Tauran (*10*), Fisher (*3*), and Feltman (*2*).

Jackson, Tauran, and Fisher used essentially the same model in their respective attempts to determine the effect of reading on children's attitudes toward blacks (Jackson), Eskimos (Tauran), and American Indians (Fisher). All of these authors employed adults to read to and sometimes discuss with the experimental group stories favorable or unfavorable to the particular minority. To be specific:

a. Jackson read a story favorable to blacks to an experimental group made up of white, southern junior high school students. The control group was not read to.

b. Tauran did not make use of a control group. Favorable and unfavorable stories involving Eskimos were read to two groups of third graders.

c. Fisher worked with three groups of fifth graders. Six stories favorable to American Indians were read to the first group. In the second group, these stories were read and discussed. The third group acted as a control and did not hear, read, nor participate in any discussion involving Indians.

As a result of the reading experiences, all three experimenters reported significant positive changes in attitude toward the minority group. Jackson, however, was the only one to perform a post-posttest two weeks later. She found that the change in attitude had not been retained.

Feltman's model was somewhat different. As part of a study examining the ability of books to change the attitudes of children toward specific occupations, she exposed an experimental group of eighth grade girls to three books dealing with different occupations. The books were not discussed, nor was there any overt attempt on the part of researcher or teacher to influence the girls' attitudes toward the occupations. At the end of the study, Feltman reported that the experimental group showed statistically significant attitude changes toward the vocations depicted in the books.

But can books alone change the attitudes of children toward other people? The Jackson, Tauran, and Fisher studies all failed to meet this issue. In each case, an adult was actively involved in the selection, reading, and discussion of the particular books and stories. It could easily be claimed that any apparent change in attitude was due to the influence of the adult rather than to any inherent quality in the book. The Feltman study separates the two influences far more successfully, although it deals with attitudes toward occupations rather than toward racial, religious, or national groups.

Design of the Experiment

The following experiment was designed with the idea of applying Feltman's model to the problem of determining what role books alone play in bringing about attitude change.

The experiment sought to investigate twenty-two children's attitudes toward certain foreign countries. With the exception of one boy whose mother was Chilean, the children in this fifth grade classroom in Champaign, Illinois, had very little firsthand information about or experience with people from other lands. However, as informal conversations soon revealed, each of these twenty-two children held definite ideas about the "goodness" or "badness" of different nations. Could these attitudes be influenced by reading? If wide and independent reading about a country could be shown to have caused children to regard that country more favorably, might not this be a clear case of books alone having influenced attitudes?

Basic Requirements

The experiment, accordingly, had certain basic requirements. First, there was need for a test to gauge the attitudes of the children toward certain countries in a pre- and posttest situation and, if warranted, in a post-posttest situation as well; for, if any significant change in attitudes did appear between pre- and posttests, it would be essential to find out whether this change would continue for a reasonable period of time. Second, the children needed an easily accessible, attractive, and interesting selection of books dealing with the countries involved. A method also had to be developed to record how the children made use of the books throughout the experiment. Finally, it was essential to have a special type of classroom in which to conduct the experiment. It would have to be a classroom where the particular countries in the study were not part of the year's curriculum. Even more important, it would have to be a classroom where the teacher encouraged the children to do a great deal of independent reading and provided time for them to do so during the daily program.

Assessing Initial Attitude

The first step was to select seven countries familiar to the children to make up the Control and Experimental groups. The Experimental group would consist of children who would read books about the seven selected countries, whereas no books or materials about the countries would be available in the classroom of the Control group.

The seven countries selected were Russia, France, England, Israel, Japan, Holland, and Spain. (The Soviet Union, United Kingdom, and the Netherlands were referred to by their more common names throughout the experiment to avoid confusing children who might not be familiar with their official designations.) A variant of the semantic differential test was used to roughly gauge the degree of feeling a child had toward each country. The children were asked to align the seven countries between positive and negative extremes for thirteen respective items. The countries closest to the positive extreme were those toward which the children had positive feelings; vice versa for the countries closest to the negative extreme. The country in the middle was regarded as neutral. The children were told that no country could be omitted, no country could be used twice, and none of the seven spaces between the two poles could be left blank.

The test was scored as follows:

a. Countries assigned to the two positions closest to the negative pole were regarded as negatively viewed and were assigned a score of one point for each item.

b. Countries assigned to the two positions closest to the positive pole were regarded as positively viewed and given a score of three points per item.

c. Countries assigned to the three middle positions were regarded as neutrally viewed and given a score of two points per item.

The total score for a country viewed as positive on every item would be thirty-nine, with thirteen as the score for any country consistently regarded as negative. By ordering the final scores, it was possible to see which countries out of the seven a child regarded most and least positively.

After examining the results of the pretest, it was decided to have France, Israel, Spain, and Russia comprise the experimental countries. England, Japan, and Holland would serve as control countries. The four experimental countries were specifically selected as representative of a broad attitudinal spread in which France was regarded as positive, Russia as negative, and Israel and Spain as neutral to negative. In contrast, the control countries were intentionally weighted toward the positive side, Holland and England being favorably regarded while Japan was usually viewed as negative to neutral.

Selection and Use of Materials

A library of books from and about the countries assigned to the experimental group was introduced into the classroom. The library consisted of books on folktale collections, travel, photography, and art, as well as picture books representing selections from each of the four countries. The texts of these books were in the original foreign languages. A typewritten slip with the English translation was pasted above the text on each page so that a child reading one of the books could enjoy the pictures, read the story, and see what the original typography looked like. The children found this especially interesting in the case of the Russian and Hebrew books, which made use of different alphabets.

In addition, many of the stories were recorded on cassette tapes in their original languages, along with folktales from the four countries recorded in English. All these cassettes were displayed with the books on the reading table, with a tape recorder and listening earphones provided so the children could make free use of them.

A picture file and bulletin board display of pictures clipped from past issues of *National Geographic* completed the display. These pictures were attractively mounted on colored paper and placed in folders according to country. The children could examine the pictures as often as they wished.

The intent governing the reading table and its display of books, tapes, and pictures was not to teach specific facts about France, Russia, Spain, or Israel, but to provide a sympathetic view of their peoples and cultures.

Classroom Controls

Once the experiment was ready to begin, the role of the teacher was crucial. The investigator was fortunate enough to have the complete cooperation of the classroom teacher who permitted the children to go to the reading table as often as they pleased, in many cases restructuring her assignments so that the less able children also had free time to make use of the books and materials. During the experiment, the teacher took great pains to avoid influencing any child's attitude toward any of the countries and avoided incorporating the materials into a teaching unit, using them as a basis for discussion, or making any significant comment about them. She merely pointed out the table to the class, briefly described its function, answered technical questions, and made it clear to the children that they were free to go to the table as often as they pleased to read and examine as many or as few of the books as they liked.

The only requirement of the children was that they complete a reading questionnaire and place it in a special mailbox provided for this purpose. A recording center was also provided for the children to record their reactions to the books, but this effort proved less successful. The purposes of the recording center and the reading questionnaire were to monitor the children's reading and to obtain their reactions to it.

The study ran from the third week in March to the second week in June 1972. At the end of May, a personal interview was conducted with each of the participating children, who were asked to comment on the materials on the reading table and to describe each of the seven countries originally identified. The posttest was administered two weeks later.

Hypotheses

The experiment hypothesized that children exposed for a period of three months to a collection of books, tapes, and related materials from and about four countries would come to regard those countries more positively and assign them to the more positive positions on a posttest. Such changes in attitude, assuming they existed, would be relatively free of any overt adult influence.

If the basic hypothesis of the experiment proved to be true, and if attitudes did change toward the four countries about which the experimental group read, the following shifts could be expected to occur on the posttest:

a. Assuming that all of the children read books from all of the experimental countries, attitudes toward Russia, France, Israel, and Spain would become more positive.

b. Russia, Spain, and Israel, initially negative or neutral on the pretest, would migrate toward the positive pole.

c. France, positive on the pretest, would maintain a postive position, making a slight positive movement if any at all.

d. Attitudes toward the other countries (England, Japan, and Holland) might not change in the children's minds. Nevertheless, these countries would be forced out of their former positive positions by the four countries read about since the children would have had the most vivid and most recent contact with these countries.

e. Holland and England, highly positive on the pretest, would be forced toward the negative pole.

f. Japan, initially neutral, could be expected to hold its position or else make a slight negative movement.

Findings

Contrary to the hypothesis predicted, the posttest means for the experimental countries (Russia, France, Israel, and Spain) were not significantly higher than those for the control countries (Holland, England, and Japan). No difference existed between pretest and posttest means other than that which could be attributed to chance.

A median test also failed to reveal any difference in the grouping of the pretest and posttest scores around the combined score median for each country. Both distributions appeared to be mostly random, with the exception of England. However, as England was not one of the experimental countries, this change could not be attributed to the books and materials on the reading table.

Nevertheless, though the experiment failed to indicate a universally positive trend for the four experimental countries, two interesting phenomena were detected. After adding the number of individual and group posttest moves from pretest positions, France was shown to have made a positive gain of 78 points. England, the only other country out of the seven to make any substantial positive gain, increased by only 32 points. This finding may suggest that reading can increase the intensity of existing positive attitudes, as France was the only country to be assigned a large number of positive positions on the pretest by the Experimental group.

A second finding appeared when the individual pretest and posttest responses for Russia and Israel were examined. The responses of nonreaders (children who had not read any books about either country) and individuals indicating favorable inclinations toward either of the two countries on the pretest were eliminated from consideration. It was then found that Russia's and Israel's posttest assignments to the three most positive positions increased substantially. Israel increased from nineteen to twenty-six; Russia, from fourteen to twenty-eight. This finding is interesting, but hardly overwhelmingly conclusive. Few of the individual gains were large. There were also a few individual decreases. Still, in the case of some individual children, there was at least a hint that some change in attitude toward Russia and Israel might have occurred which could possibly be linked to reading books from and about those countries.

Other than these two incidental results, the analysis of the data collected from the experiment provides no reason to assume that the attitudes of the children in the Experimental group toward the countries changed to any significant positive degree. There is no reason to assume that the books and related materials on the reading table had any more than the slightest effect on the children's attitudes. Though they appeared to enjoy using the materials, their basic attitudes toward the four countries did not become more positive and, although not one child in the group had ever had any direct experience with any of the seven countries involved in the experiment, it seems that definite positive and negative attitudes toward them had formed long before the experiment began. Books alone were unable to influence these attitudes.

Conclusion

The fact that this experiment failed to substantiate its hypothesis that exposure to books from and about a country will make the reader feel more positive toward that country forces a reconsideration of the common belief that a child's unguided reading can significantly affect and influence his attitudes. While there may certainly be individual instances where one child's thinking is radically changed as the direct result of reading a particular book at a particular point in his life, the assumption that books alone can change children's attitudes and values according to predictable patterns appears to be highly tenuous—at least from the results of this study.

Does this study, therefore, imply that the role of books is unimportant in bringing about attitude change? Far from it. Books are important tools for bringing about greater understanding and empathy between individuals and groups. But they are only tools; and, like tools, they are most effective in trained, experienced, and dedicated hands. If children are to get the most out of their reading, they need not only the tools but also the hands to guide them.

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Larrick, author of children's books, views the paperback as an invaluable adjunct to the elementary reading program. She cites the recent history of the paperback and argues convincingly that teacher training programs must model the use of paperbacks.

The Paperback Bonanza

Nancy Larrick
Lehigh University

In 1964, the New Jersey Department of Education made the first comprehensive survey of paperback use in elementary and high schools. Forty thousand paperbacks were allocated to fifty schools. The project directors sought answers to such questions as:

1. What effect do paperbacks have on the reading interests and skills of the students?
2. To what extent are paperbacks adequate as compared with basal readers and early reading textbooks?
3. Is a paperback collection more useful than an anthology?
4. Will the availability of books increase teacher reading and teacher reference to additional books?
5. Does a sizable stock of books in the classroom expand the range and scope of student reading?

The results were an overwhelming endorsement of paperbacks for their appeal to children and for their effectiveness in the teaching of reading. More paperbacks in the school library resulted in more library books being read. More paperbacks used for classroom reading instruction led to greater progress in reading. Paperbacks sold in a school store increased quality and quantity of reading.

Student response favored paperbacks; 68 percent said that paperbacks increased their interest in school work, especially reading.

The New Jersey report concluded that every elementary school classroom should have its own paperback collection, that schools should budget at least $2 per pupil for purchase of paperbacks, and that teachers and supervisors should exploit opportunities afforded by the large scale use of paperbacks.

Shortly after the New Jersey survey, Daniel Fader began the now famous project in which he provided youngsters with what he called a "saturation" of newspapers, magazines, and paperback books. His report of the results, *Hooked on Books,* became a best selling paperback. Fader called the paperback book "the biggest educational bargain since the invention of the underpaid teacher." Today, the children's paperback is an even greater bargain when compared to the $5.95 price tag on virtually every hardcover book for children.

The Aftermath

Yet, ten years after the persuasive evidence from the New Jersey survey, the only paperbacks in the overwhelming majority of elementary schools are those bought by the children through book clubs. Few paperbacks are being used for reading lessons or for projects in social studies and science; few school libraries circulate any significant quantity of paperbacks; few elementary schools have a paperback bookstore for teachers and pupils. Only the very unusual school has a central purchasing procedure which encourages teachers to buy paperbacks in quantity.

In high schools and colleges, however, paperbacks have almost replaced the hardcover textbooks and anthologies in the humanities. Instead of buying a $12.50 anthology, a college student gets ten paperbacks selected from a large list. But elementary schools still cling to the teacher-proof textbook despite overwhelming evidence that no single textbook and its supporting supplements can possibly provide for the diversity of interests and abilities among today's children. Educational practice is ten years behind the findings of educational research.

The situation is all the more ironic because, in the past ten years, there has been a veritable bonanza of paperbacks for preschool and elementary school children. More than 4,000 titles for children are listed in the 1973 *Books in Print.* Seventy publishers now issue paperbacks for children; catalogs of children's paperbacks are published by wholesalers and distributors, many offering discounts on classroom libraries.

Until the mid-sixties, Scholastic was the major imprint on paperbacks for elementary school children. Scholastic now sells to 420,000 classroom clubs with 12 million members who buy 60 million paperbacks a year. Another hustler for the school child's dollar is the American Education Press, a Xerox subsidiary which has more than 200,000 classroom clubs. A third set of clubs is operated by Young Reader's Press, owned by Simon and Schuster, and *Readers' Digest* plans to launch a series of clubs.

New Needs—New Uses

Although juvenile paperbacks are more abundant than ever before, it is not easy to find and buy a certain title. The Children's Book Council, which maintains a reference library of all hardcover books brought out by its member publishers in the past three years, makes no effort to maintain a complete file of paperbacks. There is no catalog of recommended paperbacks for children; the Bro-Dart *Elementary School Library Collection* lists desirable hardcover books, recordings, films, and filmstrips—but no paperbacks.

A publisher cannot handle an order for a single copy of a low-priced book without losing money. It costs just as much to fill one 75¢ order as a $7.50 order and there goes the profit, which is only a few cents on a paperback. Bookstores which make $2 or more on a hardcover book cannot afford to stock a representative collection of paperbacks.

Paperbacks require new buying habits and, generally, should not be ordered from the publisher but from the distributor, who is the middleman between publisher and consumer. One important kind of distributor is the jobber who specializes in the school market. The directory of paperback distributors given in *Paperback Books for Young People*, published by the American Library Association, will be helpful, although it is not all-inclusive. More sources can be found in the yellow pages of the telephone directory under *Book Dealers: Retail* and *Book Dealers: Wholesale*.

Many paperbacks are beautiful books printed from the same plates as the original Caldecott and Newbery winners. "But will they last?" ask those who still think an expensive book must be a better buy in the long run. Since six to ten paperbacks can be bought for the cost of one hardcover book, the question may seem superfluous. But the new glues used on paperbacks may prove more durable than the sewing once considered essential for school volumes. And the paperbacks are used repeatedly. A school librarian in Illinois, who tallied circulation figures at the end of her new library's first year, found that 40 percent of the titles were paperbacks and these books averaged twenty-five circulations. The cost of each circulation was two cents, based on 1967 book costs.

But how about the cost of processing which ranges from 75¢ to $1.25? Smart librarians do not spend $1.25 to process a book costing 75¢. When librarians simply stamp the school library name, they find that the losses are not serious.

The value of timeliness in the paperback must be weighed against the longevity once considered almost sacred in hardcover books for children. In 1974, a paperback issued about Hank Aaron's home run record stirred millions of readers who would yawn over the timeless tale of *Andy and the Lion*. The demands aroused by television and by disc jockeys are urgent; hardcover publishing is too slow to meet them. Children prefer relevance to lifetime bindings. By the test of relevance, the paperback rates far above the hardcover book. Most children want the softcover book that fits a blue jeans pocket.

Those elementary schools which are using paperbacks have shown ingenuity in displaying and circulating them. Paperback bookstores are sometimes set up in the school library and, sometimes, in the hallway or school cafeteria. Schools selling paperbacks tend to incorporate them into the curriculum more frequently than those schools without stores.

Preservice Change

Even the youngest teachers just out of colleges of education seem to be unacquainted with the potential of the paperback bonanza. They were taught to use basal readers and their supplements. They had a course in children's literature, usually with a jumbo textbook and little or no mention of paperbacks.

Convinced as I am that we must move from mass teaching to individualization, I have changed the methods in my university classes for inservice teachers and teacher interns. Instead of relying on anthologies and textbooks, I am using paperbacks to teach literature and poetry for elementary school children. My students read from 100 to 200 paperbacks in a semester and buy an average of 15 to 20 at the school bookstore. My classes are broken into small groups which pursue such topics as the poetry of oral literature, poetry of the city, poetry and music, black poetry, and poetry by and about children. Scholastic book/and/record packets and the Weston Woods book/cassette/filmstrip packages are frequently used in our classes as well as with the children taught by my students.

Teacher Response

A second grade teacher, encouraged by the theme-teaching concept, tried it with a unit about animals. She nudged her pupils into individualized reading of some truly beautiful paperbacks. The classroom library included such informational books as *Houses from the Sea, Song of the Swallows, The Old Cat* (all Scribner), and *It's Nesting Time* and *Bees and Beelines* (both Crowell). There were stories of children and animals: *Hi Cat!* from Macmillan, *Bluberries for Sal* from Viking, and *My Friend Mac* from Houghton Mifflin. Fantasies about animals included *Where the Wild Things Are* and the *Clifford* books from Scholastic; Marcia Brown's *The Three Billy Goats Gruff* from Harcourt, and the *Curious George* books and *Lyle and the Birthday Party* from Houghton Mifflin. There was poetry, too, with *One Wide River* from Scholastic, *Prayers from the Ark* from Viking, and *Cricket in a Thicket* from Scribner. This sampling indicates the tremendous array of fine paperbacks available for theme-teaching in elementary schools.

Inservice teachers suggest that paperbacks outdistance all other topics, and their absence in undergraduate teacher training classes is sharply criticized. One young and imaginative teacher said, "I never saw books like these for young children—and I just graduated last June."

Teachers want support from administrative and supervisory staff—support that is seldom given in any discernible amount. One teacher commented: "They look down on paperbacks as suitable only for entertainment, not for regular teaching. Now, I know better."

These teachers are eager to experiment. They are sold on the need for reaching each individual and getting him involved in what appeals to him. They know they need multiple materials—more than can possibly be included in a single textbook and all its supplements—materials more timely than those bound in buckram. Further, they want some say in the selection of learning materials so they can make the most of the wealth of paperbacks now available for elementary school readers. Reading specialists and school administrators who think in terms of the future will heed these needs.

Every teacher who questions how reading materials are prepared will find satisfying answers in Squire's thorough examination of publishers' efforts to respond to pupil, teacher, and school needs.

How Publishers Develop Instructional Materials

James R. Squire
Ginn and Company

How do publishers ensure that the reading materials they publish are usable and workable in the classroom? Traditionally, they have relied on just about every Research and Development (R&D) resource available to them.

- They select authors with practical classroom experience and familiarity with classroom applications of research.
- They engage experienced and successful writers of literature for children, hoping that the writers' demonstrated sensitivities to the interests of children will provide a reservoir of insights useful in writing or choosing selections for reading.
- They rely on the judgment and insights of professional reading editors—the large majority of whom have devoted their careers to teaching and education—and on the experienced and highly qualified staffs in some publishing houses.
- They depend, in initiating new programs, on the accumulated background of studies on previously published programs—both on the programs that worked and those which did not work. It is no accident that the majority of publishers who were strong in reading twenty years ago continue to be strong today.
- They build on small-scale experimental projects initiated by individual schools and school systems, attempting to make the innovative dimensions of an isolated experiment usable by all teachers.

- They call on professional scholars and successful teachers to review manuscripts prior to publication and, today especially, they consult qualified and sensitive educational leaders on problems of cultural pluralism and sexism in content and graphics.
- They check the readability level, the concept density, and the interest level of particular manuscripts prior to publication, just as they check the content authenticity.
- They ask selected groups of children to read and use materials prior to publication to obtain an indication of pupil response.
- They field test especially critical materials prior to publication.

All of these are fairly traditional approaches which have been used for many years in many different ways. All have been customarily applied in prepublication development of reading programs—not so systematically as they might have been but within the financial and logistical limitations imposed on publishers. Thus, it has not been uncommon for a major new program to require six or eight years of conceptualizing, revising, and editing prior to publication. As a result, American schools have had instructional materials superior to those of any other schools in the world. But also, as a result of the time lag, the materials sometimes seem not to be immediately responsive to changing school conditions.

Publishing Accountability

Schools have long held educational publishers accountable, both directly and indirectly, for the quality of their products, particularly for the multiyear elementary school programs designed for teaching basic skills in reading. Established publishers, with highly respected imprints, have long used every feasible R&D technique to enhance the quality of their products.

Historically, author and publisher accountability have varied inversely with the educational level of publication. An advanced level college textbook by Ben Bloom or Nila Banton Smith has been regarded as Bloom's or Smith's book, regardless of who published it. The publisher's normal contribution consisted of little more than copyediting, design, and distribution. But multiple year elementary reading programs, and to a lesser extent basic secondary and introductory college programs, have been considered primarily the work of publishers—Scott, Foresman; Ginn; etc.—regardless of how distinguished the authorship may be. To install the program, the schools turn to the publisher for help and the publisher must respond. This is the way it has been and the way it continues to be, changing only with respect to the basic college courses where, increasingly, publishers are demonstrating initiative in defining the need, conceptualizing a program to satisfy the need, and recruiting authors to prepare instructional materials. In no way does this diminish the contribution and creativity of authors who contribute significantly to the programs. It is essential however, to recognize the enormity of the efforts involved in creating and maintaining a complex and varied program of educational materials with the necessary supporting staff.

Secondary school programs fall somewhere between the elementary and the advanced-level college models, depending on the nature and complexity of each program. A six-year mathematics program would be considered an Addison-Wesley or a Holt, while a single textbook on an aspect of American history would be considered an individual author's work.

Because of the complexity of the multiyear programs, the instructional ramifications involved, and the size of the developmental staff (not uncommonly more than forty contributors), the publisher's contribution and investment are great. Indeed, in any single decade, few major publishers can invest in more than one or two multiple-year major programs in a subject as vast as reading. Nor can schools afford to change their use of larger programs with the frequency they change individual titles. Once installed, large programs involve a major commitment in our classrooms, and publishers are called upon to provide needed inservice support activities.

These conditions explain, in part, why school publishers approach such major investments cautiously; why they frequently revise and update existing programs; why, even with government-sponsored programs carrying limited copyrights, publishers plan many years for new editions and services. Most progress in the creation of instructional materials occurs slowly and systematically over a period of time.

Postpublication studies—the opportunities provided to improve programs as a result of actual classroom use—have contributed to the success of this historical development model by plowing into revisions the changes and improvements that come as a result of reactions from teachers using the materials; by feedback to the publisher from classroom visits and interviews with students; by results from standardized tests indicating the degree of success demonstrated by children using a program. Indeed, one reason why some 100 million Americans learned to read through the use of one of a small number of basal reading programs during the forties, fifties, and sixties was that the major programs were successively and thoroughly revised, based on studies of actual use. Twenty-five years ago, publishers created extensive manuals to provide at least basic instruction for teachers who lacked the formal education in reading instruction that most of our teaching cadres have today. For teachers who sought independent program-related seat work, the publishers created consumable workbooks, duplicating masters, and language games and special experiences designed to reinforce basic learnings. A major program in reading thus became a developing program, created initially with all of the resources publishers could command and then tried, tested, and revised as a result of actual use.

All of these things have been done and are being done, in one way or another, by most of the major publishers engaged in developing and servicing instructional programs in reading. These traditional approaches to development have served the profession reasonably well

Current Needs and Approaches

The past decade has seen a movement toward more systematic development of materials on a more timely basis. Two factors influenced this movement: 1) the need for greater efficiency in meeting increased publishing costs and small school budgets for instructional materials; and 2) the impact of increased concern with instructional systems in reading, increased knowledge about the systematic development of programs, increased sensitivity to the learning outcomes of the pupils, and heightened need for quality content and effective use of the materials.

Whereas the traditional development pattern usually began with the selection of a qualified team of authors and consultants who then worked with editors to conceptualize and write a successful program, the newer approaches begin with the identification of the learning need, the specification of outcomes, and the overall design of a program to meet these needs—instruction, content, pedagogy. Well planned installation and training strategies are mandatory. Here, as in the schools, learning strategies begin to take precedence over teaching strategies. Frequently, field testing, study of children, and school conditions may be required to satisfy these requirements. Authors often are not clearly identified until the overall structure of the program is in place and the authors' current roles are definitely specified.

In the traditional development mode, a complete multiyear reading program might be written before any portion of the program is tried out in the classroom. Newer approaches involve the field tryout of representative modules or units and attempt to test the effectiveness of the approach to learning prior to its full development.

The increasing modularization of programs facilitates this development and helps publishers respond more quickly to changing needs. A laminated work sheet, cassette tape, separate duplication master, filmstrip, or fiche can be revised more quickly than a 400-page book and with fewer inventory problems.

In the traditional development mode, data accumulated from field tryouts are often restricted to the recorded impressions of teachers, while the newer approaches stress factual data on pupil performance and pupil attitudes. Clearly, if the quality of materials is to be judged by pupil performance, then ascertaining the nature and achievement of these results is critical. Special expertise is required to accomplish such evaluation. The addition of professionally trained psychometricians and evaluation specialists to our editorial divisions has aided this assessment.

In traditional development, it was assumed teacher behavior could not easily change (stress was placed on changing the content and on writing manuals and guides on how teachers should utilize pupil materials within traditional modes of instruction). An increasing number of new programs stress field testing of teacher-training systems with each new program (i.e., the teacher materials and approaches needed to assure successful program performance). It is also important to determine in advance the installation services which publishers may need to supply to schools as well as the continued support required for effective use of the materials in the schools.

Developmental R&D in publishing, like curriculum development in the school, has moved from almost exclusive concern with input (improvement of content and existing modes of instruction) to greater concern with output (pupil performance) and specific factors that influence performance: the instructional system, the teacher-training system, the methods of diagnosis and evaluation, and the methods for providing needed teacher support. Application of such systematic approaches has enabled publishers to question the processes used in program development, and has forced publishers on the leading edge of research technology to provide opportunities for the teacher education needed to ensure that programs will work. And this application places in teachers' hands, tools to facilitate the learning processes. In the process of deliberating such needs, publishers begin to view instruction as separate from content and to recognize that content alone does not necessarily assure that pupils will learn to read.

Not the least of the important developments in educational publishing has been the application of principles of systems management—the identification of program objectives; the application of critical path scheduling; and the assignment of program responsibility for budgets, schedules, and quality to a single manager who is held accountable for the results through postpublication monitoring and evaluation. Such systematic approaches have enabled publishers to apply their resources more efficiently to the solution of educational problems and to respond more quickly to urgent school needs.

Educational publishers are limited, of course, in the resources they can commit to the improvement of instructional materials. Given the present economic structure, investment in R&D (together with all other editorial costs) tends to be restricted, by industrywide averages, to not more than 6 percent of the revenue anticipated from any project. Thus, more improvement can be accomplished with larger programs which generate larger revenues. Present data suggest that from 15 percent to 30 percent of the total editorial investment of school publishers is committed to prepublication tryouts, field tests, postpublication analyses, and other development activity associated with validation, learning verification, and similar product improvement activity. Because much of this investment must be made early in the development process, its economic impact is particularly significant.

Continuing Cooperation between Publishers and Schools

As these facts clearly indicate, publishing R&D clearly stresses the *D* of development rather than the *R* of research. Independent university centered and federally supported research efforts are basic to improving our instructional materials. For example, publishers lack the large scale resources needed to sustain field tests with thousands of children for two- or three-year periods. Publishers need more basic studies into systems of instructional management designed to increase the effectiveness and productivity of institutions of learning—the kinds of feedback information on children's progress in reading which teachers and supervisors will actually use. Those publishers currently offering such management tools believe, from their own studies, that most teachers are seeking more information on the nature and pacing of pupil progress and that, given this information, they will use it effectively. But we have major questions about how and when such instructional information is most effectively supplied. Major research of this kind, involving cooperative action of the industry as well as researchers in university and development centers, could eventually contribute substantially to improving the effectiveness and workability of all instructional materials.

This is not to say that publishers will not continue to meet the needs of our schools and to redirect their own development efforts. As long as 90 percent or more of all instructional materials used in the schools are those developed by the private sector (albeit influenced by authors and consultants, by research, and by expressed needs of the schools), publishers must continue to provide effective materials and helpful support services. In seeking ways to improve the quality of their products, publishers will carefully sample the student population, identify prototype materials for prepublication testing, and work closely with schools in postpublication studies designed to improve subsequent editions of their instructional programs. Publishers know how to do more than they are presently doing. But to do much more than is presently underway would substantially increase the overall cost of learning materials at a time when school budgets are strained and when the percentages allotted for instructional materials have been declining.

Conclusion

This abbreviated report of current R&D efforts of American publishers to improve instructional materials in reading can do little more than suggest that, viewed in historical perspective, the current concern for assurance of "learner verification" or "program validation" (perhaps a more accurate term is "materials verification") is but an evolutionary step in the history of educational publishing. It is a step toward systematizing procedures for reporting to schools what publishers have long attempted to do. But it is a step to which most school publishers are thoroughly committed.

In 1973, the Association of American Publishers issued "Improving the Quality of Instructional Materials," a position statement which reads: "American publishers of materials for the schools will continue to respond to the educational priorities of the schools as they have for the past 150 years. Out of this continuing partnership between publishers and schools will come stronger, more reliable, and more effective materials. The ultimate guarantee that publishers will continue to produce higher quality materials is the fact that educational publishing is highly competitive. Excellence is required in product development in order to produce materials that will be accepted by professionally trained educators and used successfully by students."